

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 146 374

CE 013 200

AUTHOR Nollen, Stanley D.; And Others
TITLE Permanent Part Time Employment: The Manager's Perspective.
INSTITUTION Georgetown Univ., Washington, D.C. School of Business Administration.
SPONS AGENCY Employment and Training Administration (DOL), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO DLMA-21-11-75-16
PUB DATE May 77
GRANT DL-21-11-75-16
NOTE 122p.
AVAILABLE FROM National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Virginia 22151

EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.83 HC-\$6.01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Blue Collar Occupations; Business; Clerical Occupations; *Employer Attitudes; Employer Employee Relationship; *Employment Opportunities; Employment Patterns; Employment Potential; *Employment Practices; Employment Problems; *Manpower Utilization; Occupational Surveys; *Part Time Jobs; Working Hours
IDENTIFIERS United States

ABSTRACT

An exploratory study attempted (1) to learn why some employers use permanent part time employment and others do not, (2) to suggest what the benefits and costs of part-time employment are, and (3) to describe which work settings are well-suited to part time employment and which are not. Data were obtained from personal interviews and mail questionnaires from sixty-eight private sector employers, both users and nonusers of permanent part-time employment. The occupations of workers studied were mainly clerical, operative, and laborer. The findings are that (1) the economic benefits and costs of part-time employment are not large and not central to the employers' decisions to use it, (2) employers do not have pejorative views about part-time workers but do see them as different from full-time workers, (3) the nature of the employer's business (work technology) strongly affects the usage of part-time employment, and (4) some dimensions of organizational climate distinguish users from nonusers. The findings indicate that the decision to use part-time employment is prompted by a scheduling problem and implementation depends on several factors, e.g., work technology, labor market conditions, and labor union influence. (The report includes thirty-one tables, ten charts, an appendix containing the interview and mail questionnaires and a bibliography.) (Author/EM)

Doc

PERMANENT PART TIME EMPLOYMENT:

THE MANAGER'S PERSPECTIVE

by Stanley D. Nollen

Brenda B. Eddy

Virginia H. Martin

School of Business Administration

Georgetown University

Washington, D.C.

This report was prepared for the Employment and Training Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, under research and development contract (grant) No. 21-11-75-16. Since contractors (grantees) conducting research and development projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express their own judgment freely, this report does not necessarily represent the official opinion or policy of the Department of Labor. The contractor (grantee) is solely responsible for the contents of this report.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

May, 1977

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

DE 013 200

3. BIBLIOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET		1. Report No. DLMA 21 11 75 16	2.	3. Recipient's Accession No.	
4. Title and Subtitle PERMANENT PART TIME EMPLOYMENT: THE MANAGER'S PERSPECTIVE			5. Report Date May 5, 1977		
7. Author(s) Stanley D. Nollen, Brenda B. Eddy, and Virginia H. Martin			8. Performing Organization Report No.		
9. Performing Organization Name and Address Georgetown University School of Business Administration 37th and O Sts., N.W. Washington, D.C. 20057			10. Project/Task/Work Unit No.		
			11. Contract/Grant No. DL 21 11 75 16		
12. Sponsoring Organization Name and Address U.S. Department of Labor Employment and Training Administration Office of Research and Development 601 D Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20213			13. Type of Report & Period Covered Final		
			14.		
15. Supplementary Notes See also "Permanent Part Time Employment: An Interpretive Review," prepared by the authors under this grant, for an extensive survey of the literature					
16. Abstracts The objectives of this exploratory study are to describe employers' experiences with permanent part time employment and to learn why some employers use it and others do not. Original data were obtained from 68 private sector employers. The occupations of workers studied were mainly clerical, operative, and laborer. The findings are that 1) the economic benefits and costs of part time employment are not large and not central to employers' decisions to use it, 2) employers do not have pejorative views about part time workers but do see them as different from full time workers, 3) the nature of the employer's business (work technology) strongly affects the usage of part time employment, and 4) some dimensions of organizational climate distinguish users from non-users. The decision to use part time employment is prompted by a scheduling problem; implementation depends on a scan of factors such as work technology, labor market conditions, and labor union influence.					
17. Key Words and Document Analysis. 17a. Descriptors Business Employment Labor Literature reviews					
17b. Identifier: Open Field Terms Part time employment Work technology Organizational climate					
17c. COSATI Field/Group 5A, 5I					
18. Availability Statement Distribution is unlimited. Available from National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Va. 22151.			19. Security Class (This Report) UNCLASSIFIED		21. No. of Pages 126
			20. Security Class (This Page) UNCLASSIFIED		22. Price

PERMANENT PART TIME EMPLOYMENT:
THE MANAGER'S PERSPECTIVE

by Stanley D. Nollen
Brenda B. Eddy
Virginia H. Martin

Abstract

Part time employment is surprisingly common, and it is growing. More than 20 percent of all people who work are employed part time. Advocacy groups are pressing for more part time jobs, but there is little information on their effect on employers.

The objectives of this exploratory study are to 1) learn why some employers use permanent part time employment and others do not, 2) suggest what the benefits and costs of part time employment are, and 3) describe which work settings are well-suited to part time employment and which are not. Original data were obtained from personal interviews and mail questionnaires from 68 private sector corporations, both users and non-users of permanent part time employment. Occupations studied were mainly clerical, operative, and laborer.

The economic outcomes of part time employment are not central to employers' decisions to use it or not. Often the outcomes for part time workers are about the same as for full time workers. When there are differences, they are often unimportant to employers. Thus economic benefits are not strong incentives to use part time employment, and economic costs are not strong constraints against its use.

The most frequent economic benefits of part time employment are reduced overtime, higher productivity, reduced absenteeism, and lower wage and fringe benefit costs. The most frequent cost is supervision, with recordkeeping also mentioned occasionally. These outcomes may vary with the occupation of the part time job. On balance, benefits outweigh costs. The expectations of employers who do not use part time workers are somewhat more negative than users' experiences, but the only factors on which there was strong disagreement were productivity and absenteeism.

Employers (both users and non-users) generally do not have pejorative views of part time workers. They believe in their seriousness of purpose, acknowledging their need to schedule work around another major responsibility (such as school or children) and earn an income. Yet many employers see part time workers as different from full time employees. They are perceived to be outside normal career ladders; not interested in or eligible for advancement or promotion.

The nature of the employer's business strongly affects the usage of part time employment. The most common reason offered for using part time workers is to fit the work force to the size of the work load. In addition, the nature of the job affects the use of part time employment. Some job technologies favor it and some discourage it.

There are two work technologies which clearly encourage the use of part time employment: discrete job tasks and cyclical demand for products or services. There are also two work technologies which are clear constraints: continuous process operations and supervisory responsibility in jobs. These technologies affect economic outcomes of part time employment and distinguish users from non-users. However, continuous process operations are not an absolute barrier--over half the users studied had this technology.

Organizational structure, management style, and managers' attitudes are secondary factors in explaining the use of part time workers. Employers who use part time workers have a relatively organic organizational structure which is more informal and less controlling than that of non-users; they are more employee-centered and participative; their work unit supervisors are more change-oriented and less traditional in their values. But there is no molar organizational climate difference between them--part time employment is not more likely among human relations climates than among classical management climates.

The decision to use permanent part time employment is a two-stage process. First, the consideration of part time employment as a staffing possibility is prompted almost exclusively by a scheduling problem--by a cyclical demand for the output of the work unit, by extended hours of operation, or by a non-standard size of work load. Second, an additive decision process comes into play. Given a scheduling problem, managers scan for factors which might block their use of part time employment or make its implementation easier. The factors which they scan are work technology, labor market conditions, trade union influence, and some aspects of organizational climate. A constraint in any of these areas reduces the chances of adopting part time employment, although encouraging factors in other areas might offset the constraint, or the scheduling problem may be serious enough to overcome the constraint.

For the future, it appears that almost any job could be made available on a part time basis. There are no absolute technological barriers or major economic costs of part time employment (except those caused by collective bargaining agreements). Although there are some job technology reasons why few managers are employed part time, these can be overcome. Yet it is not likely that many additional part time jobs will be made available without some new incentive for employers to do so. The major incentive to use part time employment currently is scheduling problems; these are not common to all employers. Few if any other strong incentives can be documented. However, if government policies encouraged part time employment, they would succeed; there would not be strong resistance registered by employers as long as they retained considerable flexibility in implementing such policies. Current non-users usually are not prejudiced against part time employment and do not foresee impossible cost barriers. But it is essential to gain the cooperation of labor unions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Among the many people who made contributions to this research are Ms. Bonnie Coe and Dr. Robert Foster of the U.S. Department of Labor; Dr. Douglas Monroe, Ms. Nancy Nollen, and Mr. William Broz, each of whom provided research assistance; all the businessmen and businesswomen who gave us interviews; the staff of the School of Business Administration at Georgetown University, especially Mr. Ed Kimmel; and our spouses and children.

For remaining errors of fact or opinion, we are responsible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	i
Acknowledgements	iii
List of Tables	iv
List of Charts	vi
Introduction	1
Chapter	
I. The Setting	5
A. Arguments and Incentives	5
B. The State of Current Knowledge	7
Size and Scope of Part Time Employment	
Employers' Experiences	
Explaining the Use of Part Time Employment	
II. Research Objectives and Methods	15
A. Hypotheses and Research Questions	15
B. Research Methods	18
C. Description of the Sample	20
III. Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment: Users' Experiences and Non-Users' Expectations	25
A. Job Performance	25
Productivity	
Absenteeism	
Turnover	
Promotability, Loyalty, and Co-Worker Relationships	
B. Personnel Administration	35
Availability and Recruiting	
Training	
Recordkeeping	
Wages and Fringe Benefits	
C. Work Management	45
Supervision	
Overtime	
Equipment and Facilities	
D. Summary of Findings	49

Table of Contents (cont.)

IV. Work Technology and External Forces: How They Affect Part Time Employment	55
A. Suggestions from Previous Research	55
B. Work Technology and the Use of Part Time Employment Technology of the Job Task Work Unit Technology Why Is Part Time Employment Used or Not Used? Jobs Not Suited to Part Time Employment	57
C. The Effects of Work Technology on the Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment	62
Effects on Job Performance	
Effects on Personnel Administration	
Effects on Work Management	
D. External Forces and Internal Pressures	68
E. Summary of Findings	70
V. Organizational Climate	73
A. Hypotheses	73
Dimensions of Organizational Climate	
Specific Hypotheses	
B. Measures of Organizational Climate	76
C. Results: Organizational Climate and Managers' Attitudes Among Users and Non-Users of Part Time Employment	77
Molar Organizational Climate	
Tradition and Change	
Structure, Style, and Orientation	
Qualifications and Ambiguities	
D. Summary of Findings	84
VI. Conclusions	85
A. The Findings in Brief	85
B. The Decision Process	88
C. Policy Recommendations	91

Table of Contents (cont.)

Appendices

I. Facsimiles of Questionnaires	93
II. Synopsis of Current Status of Federal and State Legisla- tion and Executive Agency Regulations	105
Bibliography	109

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.	Sample Size By Source of Data	20
Table 2.	Description of Sample: Industry and Work Activity of Employer; Occupation and Sex of Part Time Workers; Use of Other Alternative Work Patterns, and Who Part Time Workers Are	23
Table 3.	Productivity of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	25
Table 4.	Explanations for Better and Worse Productivity Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	28
Table 5.	Absenteeism of Part Time Workers Compared to Full Time Workers	29
Table 6.	Effects of Occupation, Work Activity, and Student-Housewife Role on the Absenteeism of Part Time Workers Compared to Full Time Workers	29
Table 7.	Explanations for Differences in Absentee Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers . . .	30
Table 8.	Turnover of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	31
Table 9.	Effects of Occupation, Work Activity, and Student-Housewife Role on Turnover of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	32
Table 10.	Explanations for Differences in Turnover Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers . . .	33
Table 11.	Promotability, Loyalty and Co-Worker Relationships for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	34
Table 12.	Effects of Occupation and Student-Housewife Role on Promotability and Loyalty of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	35
Table 13.	Availability and Recruiting of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	36
Table 14.	Effects of Occupation and Work Activity on Availability and Recruiting of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	37

List of Tables (cont.)

Table 15.	Training Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	39
Table 16.	Explanations for Better and Worse Training Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	40
Table 17.	Recordkeeping for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	41
Table 18.	Wage Costs and Fringe Benefits for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	43
Table 19.	Explanations of Better and Worse Wage and Fringe Benefit Costs for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	44
Table 20.	Supervision of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	46
Table 21.	Explanations for Worse Supervision for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers	46
Table 22.	Overtime Payments Under Part Time Compared to Full Time Employment	48
Table 23.	Equipment and Facilities Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Employment	48
Table 24.	Job Technologies of Part Time and Full Time Jobs in Similar Occupations	58
Table 25.	Technology of Part Time Jobs	59
Table 26.	Technology of the Work Unit in Work Units Using and Not Using Part Time Employees	60
Table 27.	Reasons Why Part Time Employment Is Used or Not Used	62
Table 28.	External Influences and Internal Pressures Affecting Users and Non-Users of Part Time Employment	68
Table 29.	Tradition vs. Change Dimension of Organizational Climate for Users and Non-Users of Part Time Employment	79

List of Tables (cont.)

Table 30. Structure, Style, and Orientation Dimensions of Organizational Climate for Users and Non-Users of Part Time Employment	81
Table 31. Supervisors' Attitudes Toward Part Time Employees	82

LIST OF CHARTS

Chart 1.	Organizational Behavior Model for Explaining Employers' Use of Permanent Part Time Employment . . .	16
Chart 2.	Summary of Users' Experiences with Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment, Their Importance, and Their Effect on the Use of Part Time Employment	50
Chart 3.	Summary of Expectations of Non-Users About Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment, Their Importance, and Their Effect on Non-Use of Part Time Employment .	51
Chart 4.	Summary of Effects of Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment on Decision by Users and Non-Users Whether to Use It	52
Chart 5.	Summary of Effects on Occupation, Work Activity, and Student vs. Housewife Role on Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment	53
Chart 6.	Effects of Job and Work Unit Technologies on Job Per- formance Experiences with Part Time Employment	64
Chart 7.	Effects of Job and Work Unit Technology on Personnel Administration Experiences with Part Time Employment	66
Chart 8.	Effects of Job and Work Unit Technology on Work Man- agement Experiences with Part Time Employment	67
Chart 9.	Summary of Employers' Experiences Which Are Affected by Key Job and Work Unit Technologies	71
Chart 10.	The Decision Process to Use or Not to Use Part Time Employment	88

INTRODUCTION

Part time employment is surprisingly common in American industry. More than 20 percent of all employed people work on a part time basis. Among women, the young, and the old, the percentages are much higher. It is also a steadily growing form of employment.

Whether due to the growth in its use or to the changing values and life styles of the 1970's, there is increasing interest in part time employment as an alternative to the standard work schedule. The popular press is replete with articles enumerating the advantages of part time employment and advising prospective workers how to find meaningful part time jobs. The stress is on permanent part time employment rather than temporary or intermittent work.

The claims made by advocates of permanent part time employment appear impressive:

- reduced unemployment by sharing the available work
- more opportunities for those who cannot work full time--parents with young children, students, handicapped, and elderly people
- easier transition of roles from housewife to worker or worker to retiree
- reduced stress in two-worker families by sharing of child care and domestic duties
- easier mid-career retraining, without total loss of earnings
- more even utilization of public services such as parks and transportation.

In addition to these alleged social benefits, advocates also claim there are a variety of advantages for employers. They include:

- increased labor productivity
- reduced absenteeism and turnover
- better tailoring of labor input to work needs
- reduced labor costs
- a larger and better qualified labor pool
- increased employee morale and job satisfaction

Despite the growing use of part time employment and its claimed advantages, those who are most responsible for its use--the employers themselves--are curiously silent. Neither business journals nor business conferences devote much attention to it. Very few academic inquiries have been made. Even the federal government itself--a policy leader and a major employer--has yet no employment policy responsive to the mounting demands to assist permanent part time employment.

Thus it is a provocative irony that there should be so much activity by those who want permanent part time employment, and so little concern by those who might provide it. Surely the staffing decisions of employers, conscious

or unconscious, are affecting millions of Americans, as well as the economics of their own enterprises. And yet there is little knowledge about part time employment from the employer's point of view.

This study is focussed on the employer. It is small scale and exploratory. It begins to investigate the issues from the employer's perspective, and it seeks to understand the irony of their unconcern. Three major questions are asked in this study:

1. Why do some employers use permanent part time employment while others do not? What is their decision process?
2. What are the benefits to employers of using part time employment, and what are the costs? How do they view their experiences?
3. What are the work settings for which part time employment is well-suited and successful, and in what settings, if any, is it inappropriate?

The first step toward answering these questions was a reading of previous studies and data sources--to learn the usage patterns of part time employment, to see the business environment in which part time employment decisions are made, and to assess the state of current knowledge about employer-level issues (see the authors' interpretive review). That research led to a series of working hypotheses:

1. That employers have generally good experiences with part time employment --that its benefits outweigh its costs--and that those good experiences account for its use.
2. That the nature of the work (work technology) in some cases fits with (or even calls for) part time scheduling, while the nature of the work in other cases discourages it.
3. That organizational climate and management style are either receptive to part time employment or hostile to it.
4. That benefits and costs, work technology, and organizational climate are interdependent, and that the decision process includes all of them.

The empirical heart of the study is opinion data obtained from 68 employers in the private sector, both those who use permanent part time workers and those who do not. Personal interviews were held with both a senior employment officer (such as a personnel director) and a work unit supervisor in most firms in order to hear both high-level policy viewpoints and day-to-day operating details. In addition, a mail questionnaire was answered by each interviewee.

The firms were concentrated in the manufacturing industry, where there are many production jobs and little use of part time employment, and in the finance and insurance industry, where there are many administrative and clerical jobs and substantial use of part time workers. Because of this concentration and the small sample size, the findings from this study are not generalizable to all work settings.

The results of this research include new knowledge about:

- What the economic benefits and costs of permanent part time employment are as it is now used
- What the expectations and attitudes of employers who do not use part time employment are, and why
- What kinds of jobs and work technologies are good for part time employment and what kinds are not good
- Whether organizational climate and management style affect the use of part time employment, and if so, in what ways
- How factors external to the firm, such as labor unions and labor market conditions, bear on the decision to use or not use part time employment
- What employers' attitudes toward part time workers are
- How the personal characteristics of part time workers, such as their housewife or student status, affect the use of part time employment and its economic outcomes
- What the employer's decision process is like--what prompts the consideration of part time employment and what factors are dominant in the decision
- If new public policy to encourage part time employment is proposed, what policies might work and how these policies might affect employers

The plan of the study is as follows. In Chapter I, the setting is presented. The issues are outlined, and there is a summary of what is known about part time employment from the employer's standpoint. In Chapter II, the research methods are described. In Chapters III, IV, and V, the main body of empirical findings is presented. Employers' experiences and expectations about part time employment are described and their effects on its usage are found in Chapter III. The work technologies of employers and their effects on the decision to use part time employment are presented in Chapter IV. Similarly, findings on organizational climate appear in Chapter V. In Chapter VI there are a synthesis of the main findings, a set of conclusions to the major questions asked, and some recommendations for future policies for both employers and governments.

Chapter I. THE SETTING

The first step in answering employer-level questions about permanent part time employment is to understand the setting in which current decisions in this area are being made. This includes a review of the major arguments presented by groups concerned with part time employment, a summary of legislative initiatives and private sector experiments with this work pattern, and a review of the state of current knowledge about it as derived from a survey of the relevant literature.

A. Arguments and Activities

Advocacy Groups. A number of advocacy groups support permanent part time employment, including those representing the interests of women, the elderly, the handicapped, and the poor and the unskilled. Women's groups believe that part time employment would assist women with children to combine career interests with household and child care responsibilities. Other groups suggest that part time employment would facilitate the transition from work to retirement for elderly people and enable more handicapped people to be productively employed. Poor people who cannot easily work full time (such as welfare mothers) might be able to work part time. Unskilled individuals who could work part time would be in a position to acquire training without total loss of earnings.¹

Other advocates claim that permanent part time employment promotes equal employment opportunity and social equity and is therefore in the service of national goals. If this is so, widespread acceptance of permanent part time employment would benefit the neediest. Permanent part time employment might remedy the underutilization of women in the labor force. In general, it expands the range of employment options, thereby contributing to the quality of working life.

In addition, two national economic benefits are claimed for permanent part time employment. The number of people unemployed can be reduced by a share-the-work principle. For example, half time jobs provide some employment for twice the number of people as full time jobs, albeit with no increase in total earnings. Thus part time employment is proposed as a means of coping with chronic surpluses of labor. (Of course, increased part time job opportunities may also increase the supply of labor, thus mitigating any beneficial effects on unemployment.)

The other benefit claimed is increased labor productivity. Part time workers may be absent less and take fewer breaks while at work. If they experience less fatigue or stress, they may be able to maintain a faster output rate. They are claimed to have high motivation.² None of these social and economic benefits, however, have been empirically verified.

¹See U.S. Congress, House of Representatives, Subcommittee on Manpower and Civil Service (1975) and U.S. Congress, Senate Subcommittee on Employment, Poverty, and Migratory Labor (1976) for representative arguments made by these groups.

²See Section B below for more details and sources.

Employers. Partly in response to these arguments, employers in federal, state, and local government and in private enterprise have recently conducted several noteworthy experiments with permanent part time employment. For example, the Professional and Executive Corps of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare offers permanent part time work at high job levels; the State of Wisconsin Department of Human Resources has a job-sharing program; and the Control Data Corporation operates a part time assembly plant.³ Other employers in the public and private sectors have also instituted a variety of ongoing, permanent part time employment programs--part time counselors at the U.S. Veterans' Administration, part time laboratory technicians at the U.S. Geological Survey, "mothers' hours" at Massachusetts Mutual Life Insurance Co., and the evening mini-shift at Occidental Insurance Co. For the most part, however, these programs have not been evaluated.

Public Policy Makers. In the public policy arena also there has been interest in permanent part time employment. Five bills relating to alternative work patterns were introduced in the U.S. 94th Congress (1974-76). Three of these focused on permanent part time employment: S. 792 by Mr. Tunney and its companion H.R. 3925 by Ms. Burke, both called "The Part Time Career Opportunity Act," and H.R. 12414 by Mr. Conable, called "The Private Sector Part Time Employment Act." The first two pieces of legislation would mandate that at least 10 percent of all federal jobs (up to supergrades) be available on a part time basis, and the third would provide a tax incentive to private sector employers to increase their use of permanent part time workers. None of these bills has yet been enacted, although S. 792 was passed in the Senate.⁴ In addition, several states have proposed or passed legislation designed to increase permanent part time employment (e.g., Massachusetts, Maryland, and Wisconsin). In the executive branch, the U.S. Civil Service Commission has sought a reinterpretation of personnel ceiling regulations to encourage more part time employment.⁵

Large Supply and Small Demand. The supply of people who want permanent part time employment is claimed to exceed the number of available jobs. Although some organizations currently employ permanent part time people, it is not a usual staffing method. About one fifth of all people who work are part time workers, but less than a tenth work part time year around. Nevertheless, the use of permanent part time employment has increased. During the last 25 years, the proportion of the labor force accounted for by permanent part time workers grew by 50 percent. New employment services have been created to meet the needs of a work force that specifically seeks out a part time career (e.g., New Ways to Work in Palo Alto and Flexible Careers in Chicago). Employers who offer new jobs on a permanent part time basis report an overwhelmingly positive response from job seekers.

³See Howell and Ginsburg (1973), U.S. Congress Senate Subcommittee on Employment, Poverty and Migratory Labor (1976), and Control Data Corporation (19), respectively, for discussions of these experiments.

⁴See U.S. Congress, House of Representatives, Subcommittee on Manpower and Civil Service (1975) for testimony on these bills (except H.R. 12414).

⁵See Appendix III for details of this and legislative activity.

Yet all this experimentation and legislative activity has raised more questions than it has answered. Questions of the economic impact on the employer and the suitability of permanent part time employment to various work settings are central. Although the state of current knowledge about these and related questions is meager, a brief review is necessary.

B. The State of Current Knowledge

The literature on part time employment, although sizeable, does not permit much synthesis of findings with any degree of certainty.⁶ There is little rigorous theoretical development (although theories of dual labor markets in the field of industrial and labor relations would seem especially applicable), and thus deductive research is hampered.⁷ The scarce empirical evidence has mainly come from case studies which are unrepresentative, or from surveys of employers who use part time workers.⁸ Much of the literature relates to women, and some of the best works are European studies conducted several years ago.⁹ A small amount of statistical data on part time employment is published in U.S. government documents.¹⁰

A distinction needs to be made between permanent part time employment and other types of non-full-time employment. This study uses the definition of the International Labor Office, which is also used by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (I.L.O. 1963, Hallaire 1968).

Part time employment: Regular, voluntary employment carried out during working hours distinctly shorter than normal.

Note that part time employment, under this definition, 1) is stable and not temporary, casual, or intermittent, 2) is not the result of adverse economic circumstances which result in cutbacks in working hours, and 3) may be part day, part week, or part month. Thus we take part time employment to mean permanent part time employment.

⁶See the authors' unpublished paper, "Permanent Part Time Employment: An Interpretive Review," for an extensive survey of the literature on permanent part time employment from the employer's point of view.

⁷Morse (1969) appears to be the only attempt, and it is a supply side rather than demand side treatment. The work of Doeringer and Piore (1971) would also seem applicable.

⁸The Catalyst studies exemplify the former (1968, 1971), and Prywes (1974) and B.N.A. (1974) represent the latter.

⁹In particular, Hallaire (1968) and I.L.O. (1973).

¹⁰See, e.g., the Special Labor Force Reports series of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, especially the annual issue titled "Work Experience of the Population."

This definition excludes three other employment categories which often have been associated with part time work:

Temporary employment: Employment of fixed duration, either full time or part time. Seasonal workers, temporary help services, and some consultants fall into this category.

Intermittent employment: Employment on an occasional basis. Work is unplanned and unpredictable with regard to both availability and duration.

Short hours, or part time employment for economic reasons: A work week shorter than normal instituted to cut production or services during economic downturns or to share work during periods of recession.

There is no international standard to determine the number of hours which constitute part time employment, or to establish how much working time is "distinctly shorter than normal." The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics defines part time employment as any employment less than 35 hours per week (without regard to temporary or intermittent distinctions).

Size and Scope of Part Time Employment

Three key facts help describe the size and scope of the phenomenon of part time employment in the U.S. First, the level of usage of part time (including temporary and intermittent) employment is surprisingly high; the usage of permanent part time employment is not precisely known, but is likely very much lower. Second, the occurrence of part time employment is very unevenly distributed across industries and occupations. It also varies greatly according to the sex and age of the worker. Third, the use of part time employment has increased substantially relative to full time employment in the past 25 years.

Level of Usage. In the United States, 21.1 percent of those who worked in 1975 were part time employees (this category includes all people who usually worked less than 35 hours per week).¹¹ Most of them--80 percent--were voluntary part time workers (as opposed to "short hours" workers whose work week was involuntarily reduced by their employer for economic reasons). Their average hours of work per week was about 12.

The extent of voluntary part time employment which is regular and permanent as opposed to temporary or intermittent is not precisely known. However, about 39 percent of all part time workers were employed year around (48 to 52 weeks) in 1975. Assuming that year around part time workers are both voluntary and permanent, then a minimum of 8.2 percent of all employed people are permanent part time workers

Sex and Age Composition. Women are much more likely to be part time employees than men. Among all women who worked in 1975, 33.0 percent worked part time while among men, only 12.4 percent worked part time.

¹¹The source for this and subsequent aggregate statistics, unless otherwise noted, is the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (1976). For more detailed data see the authors' unpublished paper.

The distinction between part and full time workers is even more pronounced according to age categories. Nearly half the nation's younger and older people, men and women under twenty and over sixty-five, work part time. Very low proportions of men in the prime working ages of 25 to 59 are part time employees, although among women a substantial level of part time employment continues throughout the adult working life. For example, only 2.8 percent of men age 35-44 worked part time in 1975, but 31.4 percent of women in the same age group did so.

Occupational and Industrial Distribution. Part time jobs tend to be routine and unskilled. About 52 percent of all men who work part time are service workers, laborers (non-farm), or operatives. Among part time women, 61 percent are service or clerical workers. In contrast, these occupations account for only 33 percent of all full time workers in the case of men and 56 percent of all full time workers in the case of women. Thus part time workers are overrepresented in these low level occupations. On the other hand, a substantial number of part time employees fall at the other extreme of the occupational spectrum. Specialized professional or technical jobs account for about one-eighth of all men and women part time workers. The occupational category with the smallest number of men part time workers is that of managers and administrators--only 2.6 percent of these employees are voluntary part time workers.

The industrial distribution of voluntary part time workers is likewise uneven. The service industries, and the wholesale and retail trade industries are overrepresented, while the manufacturing industry, with only 3.9 percent of its employees working part time, is underrepresented. However, these outcomes may also reflect the distribution of skilled and unskilled occupations within these industries or the number of women they employ.

Growth of Part Time Employment. Since the early 1950's the proportion of both men and women who work part time has increased--from a level of about 9.0 to 12.4 percent for men, and from a level of about 25.0 to 33.0 percent for women. The number of part time people working year around, however, has increased at roughly the same rate as all part time workers. More employers have increased their use of permanent part time employment than have decreased it (B.N.A., 1974). Voluntary part time employment has increased especially rapidly. In the late 1950's voluntary part time employment represented about two-thirds of the part time workforce. Currently it represents four-fifths. However, the overall increases in part time employment appear to be due to an increase in the number of young and old people working part time. There has been no secular increase in the proportion of prime working age men or women who work part time.

Occupationally, the largest increase has been in the clerical and service occupations. There has also been an increase in the relative number of professional and technical people who work part time.

Employers' Experiences¹²

A number of studies have measured employers' experiences with and attitudes toward permanent part time employment. These findings have also suggested that

¹²See the authors' unpublished paper for sources and more detail.

forces external to the employers may have generated the use of part time employment.

Workplace Outcomes. One outcome suggested by the literature is that permanent part time workers may differ in overall job performance from their full time counterparts, especially in productivity, turnover, and absenteeism. Previous studies do not suggest that part time workers are clearly superior, but that part timers perform better than full time workers more often than not. Nevertheless, part time employees are often believed to be inferior in promotability, competence, responsibility, loyalty, identification with employers' goals, and in their relationships with coworkers, although there is little evidence in previous studies to support these beliefs.

It is also commonly believed that part time employment causes higher personnel administration costs to be incurred than would be the case for full time employment, especially for recruiting, training, record keeping, and fringe benefit costs. Previous studies suggest this may be true for record keeping, but there are no empirical indications about recruiting, training, or fringe benefit costs.

Work management tasks are often thought to be problems with part time employment. For example, supervision and communication may be more difficult, equipment and facilities may need to be expanded, and scheduling the working time of part time workers could introduce complexities. But in other cases, work management tasks might be eased by the use of part time employment, if that means less overtime needs to be scheduled for full time workers, or if peak work loads or extended hours of business can be more easily covered.

It is not likely that all the benefits or all the costs of permanent part time employment will accrue to any given employer. Only some will be realized. Furthermore, an outcome which is a benefit to one employer may be a cost to another. In other words, which outcomes are favorable for part time employment and which are unfavorable is in part situation-specific.

Attitudes and Perceptions. Previous work suggests that many employers hold a rigid, stereotyped view of part time employment. It is often viewed as marginal and unnecessary except as an expedient to cope with special work needs. It is considered appropriate only for certain work technologies, and suitable mainly for entry level and less desirable jobs. Employers tend to see managerial jobs as unsuited to part time employment. Professional jobs are acceptable as part time positions only if there are no administrative responsibilities. Little training investment or promotional opportunity is attached to part time employment. Part time job holders are correspondingly viewed as temporary secondary wage earners. Employers do not consider them serious about careers or committed to the labor force. Other studies suggest that employers who do not use part time workers are reluctant to begin to do so because they fear disruption of the status quo, higher costs, and a variety of diffuse and unspecified administrative complexities.

External Forces. Two major forces external to the employer may influence the use of permanent part time employment and affect the experiences some employers have had with it. One such force is the conditions of labor supply. If full time labor is scarce, as it was after World War II in Europe, the use

of part time employment is favored since it may expand the size of the labor pool by appealing to people who otherwise would not work (such as some women). If part time labor is in surplus, as is thought to be the case in the U.S. currently, benefits from part time employment may accrue to the employer. Recruiting costs, for example, may decrease, and better qualified and hence more productive people may be employed.

The other major external force is labor unions. Some unions are skeptical of part time employment. They believe it might damage the status of full time workers by increasing competition for jobs and depressing wage rates. Some unions also believe that widespread part time employment might mitigate against union objectives to gain a shorter full time work week. Unions are concerned that part time workers might be more difficult to organize. Unions and women's groups suspect that part time employment would further institutionalize women in a marginal employment role. Nevertheless, some unions, such as the Communications Workers of America, have been leaders in advancing permanent part time employment arrangements. A unionized work unit may discourage an employer from offering part time employment if all fringe benefits are provided to all workers by contract agreement and these benefits cost proportionately more for part time employees.

Explaining the Use of Part Time Employment

Previous studies do not explain why permanent part time employment is used by some employers and not others. The point of departure, of course, is to examine the experiences which employers have with part time employment. However, those experiences are not clear cut. They are sometimes favorable and other times unfavorable. There is also little evidence on the importance of these experiences to the decision to use or not to use part time employment. There are only the suggestions that the experiences may be in part dependent on (1) who the part time workers are, (2) what the technology of the job or work unit is, and (3) what the organizational climate and management style is.

Worker Characteristics. The typical part time worker is a woman, young or old, who has another major life role, such as student or housewife. These characteristics may affect the employers' costs or benefits. For example, bright, adaptable college students may not need training, thus saving training costs. Mature and experienced housewives who are used to working independently and responsibly may save employers the cost of close supervision. On the other hand, productivity may decrease if the worker is a moonlighter already tired from another job. Similarly, students with changing interests may increase the turnover rate.

Employers' experiences with part time workers usually do not determine whether they use part time employment. Among the five reasons cited most frequently in previous studies, not a single direct reference to job performance or personnel administration experiences exists. These five reasons are (1) general or specific labor shortage, (2) peak load coverage, (3) extended hours of operation, (4) job does not require full time attention, and (5) retaining experienced workers no longer able to work full time. Economic benefits such as reduced recruiting costs and reduced labor costs are, of course, implied in these

reasons. And indeed higher productivity and reduced turnover (both job performance outcomes) appeared in the top ten reasons for using part time employment. But an alternate explanation (not simply economic experiences) is suggested by these reasons, and also by the observed unequal distribution of part-time employment across industries and occupations.

Job and Work Unit Technology. Previous studies suggest that some jobs are more suited to part time employment than others. Jobs involving continuous process technology are believed least suited for part time employment. Included in this category would be jobs in many manufacturing industries, or which in general require continuity, such as supervisory, management, and executive positions. They are thought unsuited for part time employment because of disruptions and scheduling complexities. On the other hand, some job technologies are thought to be especially suited to part time employment, such as discrete tasks, repetitive or tedious work, and stressful (mentally taxing or emotionally demanding) work. Jobs which are characterized by discrete tasks may require fewer supervisory inputs and thus avoid a usual cost of part time employment. Both repetitive and stressful work is thought to benefit when done in blocks of time shorter than the customary 8 hours.

Two other work unit technologies are thought to favor the use of part time scheduling. A time pattern of demand for the work unit's products or services, which is either cyclical (e.g., peak loads during part of the day, as in the case of bank teller service) or extended in hours of operation (e.g., evening hours in retail stores), is thought appropriate for part time work.

Although job and work unit technology affects employers' experiences with part time workers (and in this indirect way contributes to the decision to use or not to use them), their prominence in previous studies leads to their separate consideration as direct influences on the use of part time employment.

A variety of external and internal factors can influence the decision maker. Labor unions (discussed above) might deter an employer from using part time workers, while equal employment opportunity pressure, community pressure, and individual managers' attitudes could constitute positive factors in favor of creating more part time jobs.

Organizational Climate. One other mode of explanation for the use of permanent part time employment is possible. Organizational climate is suggested not from previous studies, but rather is observed in field research. The concept is not precisely defined, although some consensus is emerging in the organizational behavior literature. One definition is "a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that is experienced by its members, influences their behavior, and can be described in terms of...attributes of the organization."¹³ There are, of course, many different dimensions of the quality of an internal environment and many variables within each dimension to tap. Working inductively from preliminary interviews with experts, five dimensions of organizational climate may be especially relevant to the permanent part-time employment decision: organizational structure (organic vs. mechanistic), management style (employee-centered vs. production-centered),

¹³From Taguiri (1973), p. . . See also Langdale (1976)

organizational focus (humanistic vs. materialistic), tradition (change vs. stability), and managers' attitudes (positive vs. negative).

Institutionalization. Permanent part time employment is seldom institutionalized as a regular employment option, even in the face of favorable experiences with it. The reasons for this lack of institutionalization need to be explored. Perhaps managers remain unaware that part time employment is a generally available method of personnel management, since standard policies, procedures, and information systems for part time employment have not been developed, and favorable experiences in one work activity are not directly transferred to others. Of course, non-transference could also be the result of an economic benefit in one job, such as higher productivity, failing to be achieved in another job.

Lack of institutionalization may also be due to non-economic hindrances centering on the deficiency of feedback mechanisms from realized outcomes to employment decision makers. There may be a simple lack of information about experiences with part time employment. Selective perception of past experiences may result from employers' attitudes which admit negative results and block positive results (e.g., actual lower turnover results for women part time employees may subjectively be blocked by stereotypes about the labor force behavior of women). Or there may be a feedback interruption in which successful part time workers are transformed in the eyes of management into "full time" workers. Thus good results are not identified with part time work itself. Similarly, positive experiences may be thought the result of a unique circumstance (e.g., a particularly outstanding worker) rather than as a normal result associated with part time employment.

Chapter II. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODS

This study about employers and part time work has a three-fold objective: (1) to understand why permanent part time employment is used or not--which factors are incentives for its use and which are constraints, and how the employer's decision is made; (2) to suggest what the benefits and costs are of part time employment; and (3) to describe which work settings are well-suited to part time employment and which, if any, are not.

The study is exploratory. It grows out of a sketchy literature and asks simple questions of a modest data base. It is empirical rather than theoretical, relying on new evidence from employers. Most of the evidence is opinion data rather than economic measurements. Thus the conclusions obtained from the analysis reflect employers' informed views, but they can not be rigorously documented. The focus is on employers rather than on employees--on the demand side of the labor market rather than on the supply side. The intended outcome of the research is to suggest rather than to declare answers--to narrow the range of ambiguity, to clarify issues, and to point toward the critical variables.

A. Hypotheses and Research Questions

Four hypotheses are suggested to explain why permanent part time employment is used or not used:

- 1) Favorable experiences with job performance, personnel administration, and work management explain the use of part time employment, while unfavorable experiences explain its non-use. According to this hypothesis, the decision to use or not to use part time employment is basically an economic one based on its benefits and costs. A secondary hypothesis is that employers' experiences depend in part on the personal characteristics of the part time workers.
- 2) Work technology explains the use of part time employment. According to this hypothesis, the decision to use or not to use part time employment is based on technical factors, i.e., the fit between the nature of the work task and the demands faced by the work unit, on the one hand, and the inherent characteristics of part time work scheduling on the other hand.
- 3) Organizational climate and management style explain the use of part time employment, in the absence of compelling performance, administrative, or management experiences, and in the absence of compelling technological reasons. This hypothesis says that the use or non-use of part time employment is a result of non-economic behavioral characteristics of the organization and is not an active or deliberate decision.

In addition to explaining its use or non-use in a particular enterprise permanent part time employment should be examined for its institutionalization, or lack of it, as a regular employment option. Thus a fourth hypothesis about the use of part time employment is:

- 4) Deficiencies in feedback mechanisms from work units employing part time workers back to employment decision makers in other work units (or in other enterprises) hinder the expansion of part time employment and prevent its institutionalization. This hypothesis says that even if other firm-level determinants of part time employment, such as experiences, technology, and climate, are favorable, it still may not be used.

These hypotheses can be clarified by the use of an organization behavior model. The model posits that there are both economic and social/psychological influences on the employer-level decision process, and that the consequences of the decision affect new perceptions of the decision variables via a feedback loop.¹

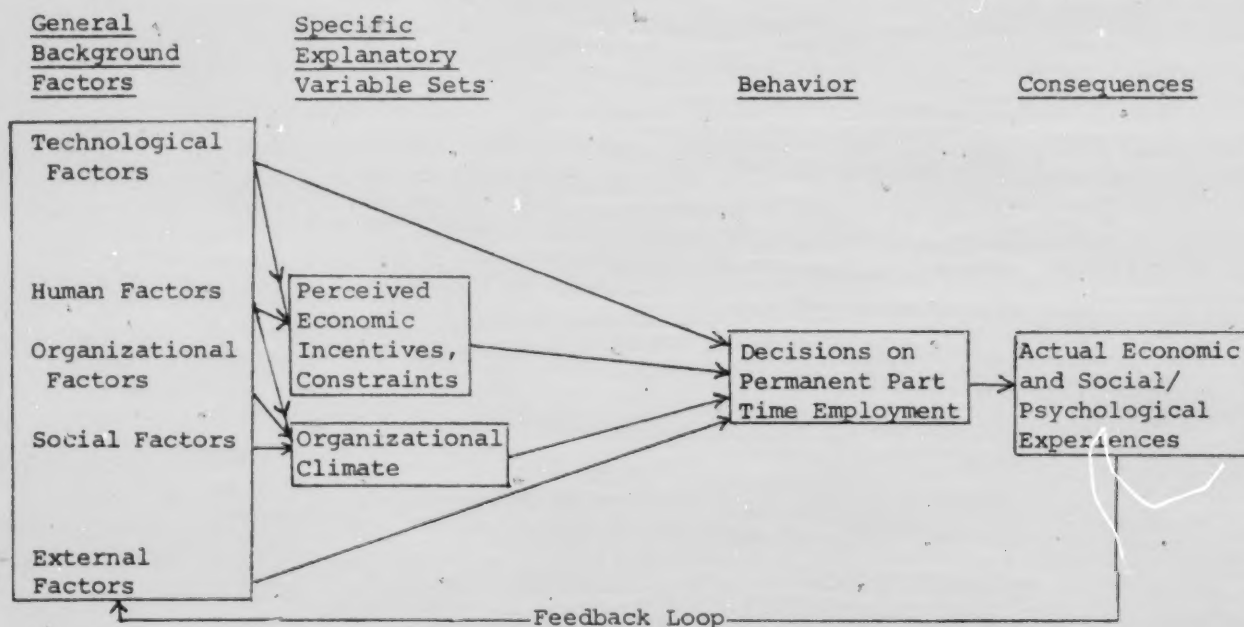


Chart I. Organizational Behavior Model for Explaining Employers' Use of Permanent Part Time Employment

This model applied to the part time employment decision differs from the more general organizational behavior models in that it introduces specific explanatory variable sets derived from the general background factors. For example, perceived economic incentives and constraints are predicted to affect decisions on the usage of part time employment, but they in turn are affected by technological factors such as the characteristics of the job and the work unit, and by human factors stemming from the characteristics of the part time workers. Organizational climate, which is also hypothesized to affect the usage of part time employment, is itself the result of general background factors including organizational factors such as management style and organizational structure, social

¹This model owes a debt to Homans (1950) for its origin and to Turner (1965) for its adaptation to formal organizations.

factors such as norms and informal communications, and human factors such as managers' attitudes. In this study, technological factors may themselves be direct causes of behavior, as well as proximate causes via perceived economic costs and benefits--they may enter the decision process directly.

The explanatory variables combine to influence behavior (i.e., decisions on part time employment) which yield particular economic and social-psychological experiences (such as productivity, wage costs, or co-worker relationships). These experiences feed back into and change the original background factors as part of an ongoing system. For example, if productivity is high for part time workers this experience would presumably feed back into the system, strengthening positive attitudes and changing organizational policies (the background factors), and further encouraging part time usage (the observed behavior).

Following from the objectives of the study and the key hypotheses, the specific research questions are:

- 1) What job performance, personnel administration, and work management experiences do users of permanent part time employment have? Which are favorable and which are unfavorable to part time employment?
- 2) What are the expectations of employers who do not use part time employment on the same outcome variables? Which do they expect to be favorable and which unfavorable?
- 3) What are the major reasons why users' experiences are favorable or unfavorable? Why do non-users expect certain outcomes to be favorable or unfavorable?
- 4) Which of these experiences and expectations, both favorable and unfavorable, are important to the decision to use or not to use part time employment?
- 5) What are the differences between the experiences of users and the expectations of non-users? What are the differences between the importance each attaches to these outcomes?
- 6) What are the effects of the characteristics of part time workers, such as student or housewife status, on the favorableness or unfavorableness of employers' experiences with part time employment?
- 7) What are the effects of the occupation of the part time jobs and the industry of the employer on the favorableness or unfavorableness of employers' experiences?
- 8) What are the job and work unit technologies where part time employment is found?
- 9) What are the job and work technologies where part time employment is not used? What are the differences in these technologies between users and non-users?
- 10) What are the effects of job and work unit technologies on the favorableness or unfavorableness of employers' experiences with part time workers?

- 11) How important are job and work unit technologies in the decision to use or not to use part time employment?
- 12) What external influences and internal pressures affect the decision to use or not to use part-time employment?
- 13) What is the organizational climate and management style in enterprises which use part time employment?
- 14) Is the organizational climate and management style significantly different in enterprises which do not use part time employment? How is it different?
- 15) Why is part time employment not institutionalized as a regular employment option? Why are successful uses not transferred to other units within the firm or to other enterprises?
- 16) What decision making process does the employer use when the part time employment decision is made? Is it a weighing of economic costs and benefits? Is it a selection of one among several staffing possibilities? Is it an assessment of special employment needs for a given work situation? Is it affected by bias, stereotypes, or faulty assumptions? Are there many factors or only a few which are considered?

B. Research Methods

Because there is little empirical data on permanent part time employment at the firm level, new data were collected utilizing original field research.

Data Sources. The data source is firms in the private sector. Employers who have part time workers provided descriptive information on their experiences and on their organizations. In order to explain why part time employment is not used by other firms, information was also obtained from employers who do not have any permanent part time workers.

Personal interviews were conducted using a structured questionnaire. These interviews collected data on 1) users' experiences and non-users' expectations about part time workers on job performance, personnel administration, and work management outcomes; 2) the technology of the jobs and work units where there are part time workers, and in comparable jobs and work units where there are no part time workers; 3) open-ended responses to questions about the role of part time employment in the firm and why it is used or not used; 4) open-ended responses on organizational climate; and 5) a variety of classification variables including industry of the firm and occupation and sex of the part time workers.² In addition, the interviewer made a tour of the work unit to formulate expert judgments and subjective impressions to corroborate some of the respondent's answers and to assist in gaining a sense of the organizational climate.

A second questionnaire was left behind to be returned by the respondent. It collected data on organizational climate and management style, as well as

²See Appendix I for a facsimile of the questionnaires used.

supplementary measures of job technology. All information was obtained in confidence, identified only by a code number. A return rate of 70 percent was obtained on the mail questionnaires, thus minimizing the possibility of response bias.

The instrument used to assess organizational climate and management style was that developed and tested by Langdale (1974). He demonstrated it to be a valid and reliable measure of a molar concept of climate for his sample and the purposes of his research. It succeeded in distinguishing firms according to their climate. It consists of 33 Likert scales. The sample and purposes of the research in this study are not unlike those of Langdale, insofar as we seek to distinguish differences between employers in their organizational climate. Thus it seems appropriate to use this already developed instrument rather than to construct a new one. However, no new validity or reliability checks were performed.

Within each firm, two personal interviews were conducted, one with the chief employment expert for the firm (typically a vice-president for personnel or the personnel director), and another with the manager or supervisor of an individual work unit. A mail questionnaire was also solicited from each. Data was collected from two levels in the firm because some information is best obtained from a top decision-making level (e.g., company-wide employment policy relevant to part time employment as articulated by its maker and ultimate arbiter), while other information is best obtained from a supervisor of part time workers--someone close to the actual day to day operation of the work unit (e.g., experiences with job performance, and descriptions of job technology). A second reason for conducting two interviews, each at a different level, was to compare responses in order to learn about information flows and feedback mechanisms which might affect the use and institutionalization of part time employment.

Sampling Criteria. Since the sample was small, a selective sampling technique was used. In order to minimize sources of variance in the dependent variables, employers of permanent part time workers were selected mainly from two major industries. The jobs of the part time workers were likewise concentrated in two major occupations. In this way, differences in employers' experiences with part time employment which are associated with industry or occupation are minimized, yet comparisons of results between two major industries or occupations can be made.

Non-users of part time employment were selected with the intention of providing a sample which was roughly comparable to the sample of users in terms of industry of the firm and occupation of workers. This would reduce the probability that differences between users' experiences and non-users' expectations were due to unknown differences between them related to industry or occupation, rather than to known and measured variables such as job and work unit technology.

Other potential sampling criteria such as geographic region, urban-rural location, and size of firm were not used because there is no persuasive evidence from previous studies that they affect the use of part time employment or employers' experiences with it. Nevertheless, a sample with broad coverage in each of these criteria was obtained. For example, firms in all regions--East, South, Midwest, and Far West--were included.

Analytic Techniques. Because this research is exploratory, no econometric or sociometric models are appropriate. The modest sample size and crudeness of some of the quantitative data further prohibit complex analyses. For the most part, simple frequencies and cross-tabulations are the analytic technique. In the case of some of the qualitative variables, data reduction was done by categorization using expert judgment.

C. Description of the Sample

The sample size is 68 firms, of which 39 are users of part time employment and 29 are non-users. Two persons were interviewed in most firms, the employment expert and a work unit supervisor. Due to some non-response, the total number of usable personal interviews was 127 and the total number of mail questionnaires returned was 88.

Table 1. Sample Size by Source of Data

Data Source	Number of Responses	
	User	Non-User
Work Unit Supervisor		
Personal interview	39	20
Mail questionnaire	30	16
(response rate, percent)	(77)	(80)
Employment Expert		
Personal interview	39	29
Mail questionnaire	24	18
(response rate, percent)	(61)	(62)
Total personal interviews	78	49
Total mail questionnaires	54	34

Industry and Activity. Employers of permanent part time workers were selected mainly from the manufacturing industry (43 percent of the users) and from the finance and insurance industries (34 percent of the users). The manufacturing industry was selected because the smallest proportionate number of part time workers are found there (except for mining); thus it is assumed to be a difficult-use industry, and it is critical to learn the experiences of those manufacturing firms who do use part time workers. The finance and insurance industry was selected because, quite the opposite of manufacturing, a relatively large number of part time workers are found there.³ Thus the sample of users is deliberately not representative of all part time employers nationally; hence, findings from this study cannot be generalized.

³Two other industries, retail trade and service industries, are also large users of part time employment. The finance and insurance industry was selected from among these three because it affords more opportunity to study high-level clerical employment, and because some previous case studies have focused on retail trade and service workers (See Prywes (1974) and Sandberg (1971)).

Perhaps of more importance than the industry of the employer is the nature of the work activity in the firm. For example, manufacturing firms also have administrative employment, which may provide quite a different work environment from manufacturing employment. In the sample of users of part time employment, 36 percent had part time employment in manufacturing activities, while 51 percent had part time workers in administrative activities. Another 13 percent had research and development activities employing part time workers (see Table 2 below).

The sample of non-users of part time employment approximated, but did not provide a perfect match for the sample of users. Somewhat more non-users had manufacturing activities (60 percent) and somewhat fewer had administrative activities (40 percent), than was true for users. This lack of perfectly matched samples is traceable to a variety of reasons which themselves are illuminating. Some allegedly non-using employers turned out in fact to be users in administrative activities; some alleged users in manufacturing activities turned out instead to be users in administrative activities, and some alleged users in manufacturing activities turned out to be non-users because their part time workers were either temporary or involuntary rather than permanent part time workers.

Occupation. Two major occupational groups were selectively oversampled: clerical workers (mainly high level clerical, not clerk-typist jobs), representing a relatively common job category for part time employment, and blue collar production workers--operatives and laborers--the former representing a relatively uncommon job category. This sampling permits diverse experiences to be reported and has the advantage of including data from supposedly inhospitable work environments. Among users of part time employment, the clerical occupation was reported 47 percent of the time, while operative and laborer occupations were reported 43 percent of the time (see Table 2). Nationally, about 27 percent of all part time workers are clerical workers, and 13 percent are operatives or laborers. On the average, firms using part time workers employed them in two different major occupations.⁴

Occupations studied in work units of non-user firms were distributed similarly to those in user firms, with only slightly heavier concentration in the operative and laborer category (55 percent) and lighter concentration in the clerical category (40 percent). Thus results from users and non-users should be comparable; i.e., differences between users' experiences and non-users' expectations about part time employment should not be due to differences in the occupations to which reference is made.

Sex of the workforce. Work units that employed part time people were composed of a majority of female workers in 72 percent of the cases. The part time work force itself was also mostly female in nearly two thirds of the cases. There is rough correspondence between the sex composition of part time workers in this study and the sex composition in the national part time work force, which

⁴The distribution of occupations of all part time workers throughout the firm is very close to that in individual work units reported by supervisors; thus their experiences on this account should correspond to company-wide experiences reported by employment experts.

is nearly two-thirds female. However, the work units studied among non-users were less often female-dominated.

Other Alternative Work Patterns. Employers who use permanent part time employment also have other forms of alternative work patterns in half the cases. These other patterns were usually some flexitime arrangement, but also included some compressed work weeks. Non-users, on the other hand, had some form of alternative work pattern in only 11 percent of the cases.

Number of Part Time Workers and Hours Worked. The median number of part time workers in each occupation was 33, and their median hours worked per week was 22 (the national average is 18). The range in the number of part time workers per occupation was very wide, going from a minimum of just a few workers to a maximum of several thousand. In contrast, there was only a small variation in their hours worked per week (the standard deviation was 7 hours). Company-wide, the median number of part time workers was 62. This means that in most cases, employers' experiences with part time workers are based on a substantial number of workers and are not idiosyncratic.

Who Are the Part Time Workers? The other major life role of the part time workers in the sample is usually that of student or housewife. Moonlighters and retired people among part time workers are found in a small minority of the firms. Non-users have similar expectations of who part time workers are. The sample is therefore consistent with aggregate data which indicate that part time employment is frequently found among women and young people (see p. 8) and that the two dominant reasons why people work part time are that they are taking care of a home or going to school (Bureau of Labor Statistics 1975).

TABLE 2. DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE: Industry and Work Activity of Employer; Occupation and Sex of Part Time Workers; Use of Other Alternative Work Patterns, and Who Part Time Workers Are

Item	User	Non-User
Industry of Employer	(percent of all employers)	
Manufacturing	43	73
Finance and Insurance	34	20
Other	23	7
Work Activity in Work Unit ^a	(percent of all work units)	
Manufacturing	36	60
Administration	51	40
Research and Development	13	5
Other	23	10
Occupation of Part Time Workers ^b	(percent of all occupations)	
Office/White Collar	57	45
Professional and technical	8	0
Manager and administrator	2	5
Clerical	47	40
Production/Blue Collar	43	55
Craftworker	2	0
Operative	29	45
Laborer	12	10
Sex of Work Force	(percent of all work units)	
Total Work Force in Work Unit		
Mostly male	8	42
Balanced	19	11
Mostly female	72	47
Part Time Work Force in Work Unit		
Mostly male	10	n.a.
Balanced	26	n.a.
Mostly female	64	n.a.
Use of Other Alternative Work Patterns		
Yes	50	11
No	50	89
Who Part Time Workers Are ^a	(percent of all work units)	
Student	90	57
Housewife	87	57
Moonlighter	39	25
Retired	23	11
Handicapped	8	14
Other	5	0

^aTotals exceed 100 because some firms have more than one work activity or kind of part time worker in a work unit.

^bFor non-users, occupations refer to comparable work units from which data were collected.

Note: See Table 1 for sample sizes.

CHAPTER III.

BENEFITS AND COSTS OF PART TIME EMPLOYMENT: USERS' EXPERIENCES AND NON-USERS' EXPECTATIONS

This chapter presents data on the opinions employers hold about part time workers. Employers who use permanent part time workers were asked about their actual experiences with them. Other employers, who do not use part time workers, were asked their expectations about part time employment. Employers' opinions were solicited in three areas: job performance, personnel administration, and work management. User and non-user respondents were asked to rate part time workers as either better, equal, or worse than full time workers in comparable jobs. Areas in which part time workers were rated better are called benefits of part time employment, and areas in which they were rated worse are called costs. If part time workers were rated better than full time workers, and that benefit was also regarded by the employer as important to his decision-making, then in this study that benefit is termed an incentive to use part time employment. Conversely, costs which were regarded as important are termed constraints against the use of part time employment. In addition, explanations why part time workers were thought better or worse than full time workers were provided by the employers.

A. Job Performance

Overall job performance is evaluated in terms of the following outcomes: productivity, turnover, absenteeism, promotability, loyalty, and co-worker relationships.

Productivity

Productivity is sometimes a benefit of part time employment, but it is not decisive in explaining its use. The productivity of part time workers is, on balance, better than that of full time workers, but in many cases there is no difference. Thus, despite the importance usually attached to productivity as a decision variable, it is not in general a strong incentive to use part time employment. For non-users, however, productivity expectations are, on balance, unfavorable, and thus productivity is a constraint against the expanded use of part time employment.

In this research, the term "productivity" is used in an input/output sense. Input refers to the amount of labor time and output to the quantity and quality of production or services. Advocates of part time employment claim that the productivity of part time workers is superior to that of their full time counterparts due to decreased fatigue, ability to maintain a faster pace for a briefer period, less frustration with a repetitive task, better concentration of attention in mentally taxing work, high motivation, and stimulus to complete a task within the prescribed period. The results of this research only partially bear out these predictions.

Outcomes. The productivity of permanent part time workers is equal to that of their full time counterparts in a majority of cases, according to their supervisors. If it is not equal, it is judged better two times out of three. Employment experts in user companies are somewhat more positive on this score than are work unit supervisors, with a plurality of them rating productivity of part time workers better than that of full time workers (see Table 3). Expectations of non-users are somewhat worse than the experiences of users, although the differences in the raw frequencies are not highly statistically significant.

Table 3. Productivity of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Source	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Users' Experiences			
Work Unit Supervisors	26	62	13
Employment Expert	43	38	19
Non-Users' Expectations			
Work Unit Supervisor	10	55	35
Employment Expert	15	59	26

Note: Sample sizes are $n = 39$ each for work unit supervisors and employment experts in user companies, and $n = 20$ and 29 , respectively, in non-user companies.

The productivity of part time workers appears to be unaffected by whether the workers are students or housewives, the occupations are white collar or blue collar, or the work activity is one of manufacturing or administration.

Most employers who experience productivity differences between part time and full time workers (whether better or worse) judge those differences to be important to their decision to use or not use part time employment--87 percent of work unit supervisors and 72 percent of employment experts respond in this way. Non-users concur. It cannot, however, be automatically concluded that productivity is actually important in determining whether or not to use part time employment, because in open-ended inquiries, respondents were given the opportunity to list reasons why they used or did not use part time employment. Productivity was infrequently cited. Since productivity differences are generally not large (occasional quantitative estimates of the productivity advantage of part time over full time workers were in the neighborhood of 10 percent), it is likely that the importance of productivity in the structured response is biased upward by the general assumption that productivity should be important to all business decisions, and does not relate explicitly to the part time versus full time decision.

Almost all employers claim to make measurements of productivity, although irregularly and not specifically for the purpose of evaluating part time workers. This means their responses are only partly based on hard data.

Explanations. When part time employees are more productive than full time employees, the reasons fall into three categories: labor market reasons, which are cited about half the time; personal characteristics of part time workers; and reasons inherent in the part time scheduling itself, each of which was offered by about one-fourth of the respondents (see Table 4).

Labor market reasons stem from the belief that there is a large pool of people available for permanent part time work (unemployment rates in the part time labor force exceed those among the full time labor force). Part time workers are believed by employers to be more productive than full time workers either because they are motivated to protect their desirable employment status once they get it or because employers can be more selective and obtain over-qualified people for part time jobs. Personal characteristics of part time workers which are offered as explanations for their higher productivity are that they are more mature, stable, responsible, or happy. Part time scheduling itself is judged as contributing to higher productivity because workers are fresher, have less "downtime" on the job, and take fewer breaks. No single reason within these categories is mentioned by more than a few employers. Diversity characterizes the explanations rather than consensus. Employment experts are somewhat more inclined to refer to labor market reasons in explaining favorable productivity outcomes than are work unit supervisors. This is not surprising since employment experts are more closely attached to the recruiting function.

When the productivity of part time workers is regarded as worse than that of their full time counterparts, the reasons cited are the part time scheduling itself (a quarter of all reasons), the personal characteristics of part time workers (another quarter of all reasons), or a variety of idiosyncratic other reasons (accounting for the remaining half of all reasons). The single most important productivity-hampering feature of part time employment is that excessive starts, stops, and changeovers produce a lack of continuity. However, employers who do not use part time employment are concerned about this potentially negative result to a degree unwarranted by the actual experiences of users. The chief overall negative personal characteristic of part time workers is that they may be less committed or have outside interests.

Absenteeism

Reduced absenteeism is a benefit of part time employment and provides some incentive to use it. The absenteeism experiences of users are favorable and of moderate importance to their decision to use part time employment. Non-users' expectations are somewhat more negative than users' experiences, however, and hence absenteeism is a constraint against the wider use of part time employment.

Previous studies suggest that absenteeism might be lower for part time workers than for full time workers. In principle, personal business can be attended to on personal time, and in job sharing situations, one partner can substitute for the other. The findings in this research support these predictions.

Table 4. Explanations for Better and Worse Productivity Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Explanation	Percent of All Reasons
<u>Better</u>	
Labor Market Reasons: larger labor pool, more selective, over qualified; motivated to protect status	47
Characteristics of Part Time Workers: mature, stable, responsible, happy	25
Due to Part Time Scheduling: fresher, no breaks or paid down time	24
Other	6
<u>Worse</u>	
Characteristics of Part Time Workers: less committed, outside interests; out of practice, slower up to speed	26
Due to Part Time Scheduling: lack of continuity, starts and stops	23
Other	51

Source: Open-ended responses of work unit supervisors and employment experts in user and non-user companies; n = 31 for Better and n = 26 for Worse

Outcomes. In a large number of cases, absenteeism is reduced by the use of part time employment. Among users, a plurality of work unit supervisors and over half of the employment experts reported that part time workers have better absenteeism records than full time workers. Fewer than a quarter of the supervisors and only 7 percent of the experts reported it to be worse. Non-users do not expect such an advantage. Half of them expect no difference between part time and full time absenteeism, and 37 percent of the supervisors expect absenteeism to be worse. As with users, employment experts have somewhat more favorable explanations (see Table 5).

Table 5. Absenteeism of Part Time Workers Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Source	Absenteeism		
	Better	Equal	Worse
(percent of responses)			
User's Experiences			
Work unit supervisors	44	33	23
Employment experts	53	40	7
Non-Users' Expectations			
Work unit supervisors	11	53	37
Employment experts	27	50	23

Notes: See Table 3 for sample sizes. Differences between users' experiences and non-users' expectations on absenteeism are statistically significant at $\alpha < .10$ according to a chi-square test on pooled supervisor-expert observations.

Experiences with the absenteeism of part time workers appear to be better when the jobs are white collar (professional, technical, and clerical) rather than blue collar (operatives and laborers) and when the work activity is administration rather than manufacturing. Students have worse absenteeism records than housewives (see Table 6).

Table 6. Effects of Occupation, Work Activity, and Student-Housewife Role on the Absenteeism of Part Time Workers Compared to Full Time Workers

Item	Absenteeism		
	Better	Equal	Worse
(percent of responses)			
Occupation includes			
White collar	52	36	12
Blue collar	35	29	35
Work activity includes			
Administration	55	40	5
Manufacturing	44	33	23
Other roles include			
Student	36	32	32
Housewife	44	35	21

Notes: The source is work unit supervisors in 39 user companies. Because some work units include both occupational, work activity, or student-housewife groups, some overlap occurs and actual differences may be greater than those reported.

Roughly half of both users and non-users consider absenteeism differences between part time and full time workers to be important to the part time employment decision. Almost all employers (94 percent) keep records on absenteeism (according to work unit supervisors) but they rarely compare the records of part time and full time employees.

Explanations. In situations where part time absentee records are superior to full time records, many respondents (32 percent) explained that part time scheduling enabled workers to attend to personal business during non-work hours. Roughly 20 percent of respondents also noted that part timers have better absenteeism in order to protect their part time status and because of personal characteristics such as maturity, stability, and responsibility. When part timers showed poor absentee records, respondents blamed other interests such as children and school (see Table 7).

Table 7. Explanations for Differences in Absentee Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Explanation	Absenteeism (percent of all reasons)
<u>Better</u>	
Motivated to protect status	20
Characteristics of part time workers: mature, stable, responsible	22
Causes of absenteeism removed	32
Other	25
<u>Worse</u>	
Other interests	70
Other reasons	30

Source: Open-ended responses of work unit supervisors and employment experts in user and non-user companies; n = 41 for Better and n = 17 for Worse.

Turnover

Turnover is usually neither a cost nor a benefit of part time employment. In general the turnover experiences of users are mixed, unpredictable, and not critical to their part time employment decisions. At the same time, turnover is a constraint against the expansion of part time employment to other firms since non-users have negative expectations of turnover which they regard as important.

The turnover experiences of users of part time employment in this study are at variance with some reports in previous studies where part time workers showed lower turnover rates than full time workers. These previous studies, however, involved special experiments either with white collar workers or situations where there were labor shortages. This research verifies that both these situations are likely to give favorably biased turnover results.

Outcomes. There is no consensus among employers about the turnover rate of part time workers. Comparing full and part time workers, roughly equal numbers of respondents report better, equal, and worse turnover experiences. Work unit supervisors and employment experts responded similarly. Over a third of the users report negative turnover experiences but use part time employment anyway. In contrast, about two-thirds of non-users expect turnover to be worse for part time than for full time workers and only 10 percent expect it to be better (see Table 8).

Table 8. Turnover of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Source	Turnover		
	Better	Equal	Worse
	(percent of responses)		
Users' experiences			
Work unit supervisor	21	44	36
Employment expert	32	32	35
Non-Users' expectations			
Work unit supervisor	10	20	70
Employment expert	8	31	62

Notes: See Table 3 for sample sizes. Differences between users' experiences and non-users' expectations on both turnover and absenteeism are statistically significant at $\alpha < .10$ according to a chi-square test on pooled supervisor-expert observations.

Most employers (78 percent of them) keep records of employee turnover, but, as with most performance measures, they rarely compare the turnover rates of part and full time workers in similar jobs.

As with absenteeism, user turnover experiences are slightly better with white collar workers (professional, technical, and clerical), and slightly worse with blue collar workers (operatives and laborers) or when workers are students (see Table 9).

Turnover factors are less important to users than to non-users of part time employment. About half the users acknowledge its importance in their usage decision while 8 out of 10 non-users (70 percent of whom expected turnover to be worse for part time workers) considered turnover an important factor in their decisions. Thus it appears that turnover constitutes a barrier to usage of part time employment by current non-users.

Explanations. When part time workers have lower turnover than full time workers, the usual reason is either that they are mature, stable, and responsible individuals, or that they are motivated to protect their status due to the desirability of their job and the excess supply of people available for that job.

Table 9. Effects of Occupation, Work Activity, and Student-Housewife Role on Turnover of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Item	Turnover		
	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Occupation includes			
White Collar	20	52	28
Blue Collar	18	41	41
Work Activity includes			
Administrative	15	45	40
Manufacturing	21	43	36
Other Role includes			
Student	16	40	44
Housewife	21	48	31

Notes: The source is work unit supervisors in 39 user companies. Because some work units include both occupational, work activity, or student-housewife groups, some overlap occurs and actual differences may be greater than those reported here.

When turnover for part time workers is worse than for comparable full time workers, the chief reason according to employers is the same one given for absenteeism: they have other interests outside their job. In addition, a substantial number of employers believe part time workers quit because they find a full time job instead or because they have only a short term monetary objective which is fulfilled (see Table 10).

Promotability, Loyalty and Co-Worker Relationships

The decision to use or not use part time workers is not influenced by factors of promotability, loyalty, or co-worker relationships. In some situations, respondents perceived these factors as equal among full and part time workers. In other situations, where the outcomes were worse among part timers, their lower evaluation was not considered important. The view of part time employment as a special purpose option makes these outcomes irrelevant, for both users and non-users.

Promotability of part time workers refers to their competence and willingness to take responsibility. Questions about promotability are designed to uncover the degree to which part time employees are regarded as capable and career oriented. Loyalty measures work identification and harmony with company interests and the extent to which they are viewed as committed members of the company work force. Co-worker relationships refer to interaction with other workers in

Table 10. Explanations for Differences in Turnover Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Explanation	Turnover (percent of all reasons)
<u>Better</u>	
Labor Market Reasons: motivated to protect status	35
Characteristics of Part Time Workers: mature, stable responsible	44
Other	21
<u>Worse</u>	
Other Interests	41
Seek full time job	23
Short term monetary objective	18
Other	18

Source: Open-ended responses of work unit supervisors and employment experts in user and non-user companies, n=25 for Better and n=50 for Worse.

the form of communication, cooperativeness, and conflict. These three aspects of job performance have less of a direct economic effect on the employer than do the other performance factors discussed here. They reflect employers' attitudes as well as actual costs and benefits. The belief reflected in previous literature is that part time workers are inferior to full time workers in these three areas and that their inferiority constitutes a valid reason not to use part timers. This research discounts their relevance.

Outcomes. The promotability and co-worker relationships for part time workers are equal to those of full time workers in well over half the cases (63 percent for promotability and 87 percent for relationships). Ratings for loyalty are split between equal and worse. Non-users' expectations are similar to user experiences for loyalty and relationships, albeit significantly more negative for promotability (see Table 11). Work unit supervisors and employment experts are in close agreement.

Table 11. Promotability, Loyalty and Co-Worker Relationships for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers (percent of responses)

Data Source	Promotability			Loyalty			Relationships		
	Better	Equal	Worse	Better	Equal	Worse	Better	Equal	Worse
Users' Experiences									
Work Unit Supervisor	11	63	26	3	49	49	5	87	8
Employment Expert	8	43	49	5	53	42	6	92	3
Non-Users' Expectations									
Work Unit Supervisor	0	25	75	5	35	60	5	80	15
Employment Expert	0	33	67	0	52	48	4	81	15

Note: See Table 3 for sample sizes.

Promotability and loyalty experiences with blue collar workers appear to be somewhat more favorable than with white collar workers. This may be a spurious association, however, since employees in the operative and laborer blue collar jobs studied are more likely to be men than are the employees in the clerical white collar jobs studied. There may be an unconscious stereotyped association of promotability and loyalty with male workers. On the other hand, superior loyalty experiences were more often reported when the part time workers included housewives. Housewives tended to be older than average, and loyalty may be attributed to age. Promotability and loyalty experiences are about the same in the different industries studied (see Table 12).

Although users had negative experiences with loyalty and promotability among part time workers, only one in four users considered these outcomes to be important. Work unit supervisors are somewhat more concerned about promotability than are employment experts. Half the supervisors rate it important. But since only a quarter of them had unfavorable promotability experiences with part time workers, promotability cannot be considered a significant cost of part time employment. On the other hand, half the employment experts in non-user companies expected negative loyalty outcomes and regarded them as important. Loyalty may, therefore, constrain the adoption of part time employment in some cases.

Explanations. There are two sets of reasons to explain why some part time workers are less promotable. First, respondents say that part time workers do not want or expect promotion, that they have fewer long range career plans, or that they are less interested in their jobs. The other set of reasons is that the employer does not permit promotion, either because policies disallow promotion of part time workers, or because the part time jobs are not in a career category.

Table 12. Effects of Occupation and Student-Housewife Role on Promotability and Loyalty of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Item	Promotability			Loyalty		
	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse (percent of responses)
Occupation includes:						
White Collar	8	72	20	0	40	60
Blue Collar	24	47	29	6	59	35
Employees' Other Roles include:						
Student	8	64	28	0	52	48
Housewife	10	59	31	4	86	11

Source: Work unit supervisors in 39 user companies. Because some work units include both occupation and student-housewife groups, some overlap occurs and actual differences may be greater than those reported here.

Although promotability, loyalty, and co-worker relationships do not determine the use of part time employment, the prevailing views of employers about these outcomes do serve to hinder its use. Part time employment, even the permanent part time employment studied, is still regarded as qualitatively different from regular full time employment. It is a special category. This conclusion is reaffirmed by the reasons cited above for the outcomes. Promotability of part time workers cannot be a relevant consideration when the employers have policies against promoting part time people, or when the employer believes, rightly or wrongly, that part time workers are not interested in advancement. In this case, the whole promotability question becomes irrelevant. The same phenomenon is illustrated in the case of loyalty. Although roughly half the employers believe part time workers are less loyal than full time workers, the negative result is of almost no consequence. Loyalty is not expected of part time workers who are considered part of a different class of workers, even within the same occupation. These findings help clarify the reasons why part time employment is so rarely found among management positions. Since part time workers are perceived as uninterested in advancement and not particularly loyal, it is unthinkable for them to hold management jobs, which usually result from promotion from within and which require unusual attachment to the enterprise.

B. Personnel Administration

Aspects of personnel administration for permanent part time workers--availability and recruiting, training, record keeping, wage costs, and fringe benefits--are described in this section.

Availability and Recruiting

The availability and recruiting of part time workers are either a benefit or a cost of part time employment in many cases, but they are not predominantly one or the other. The outcomes depend in part on the occupation of the part time job and the labor market conditions.

Because of the apparent surplus of part time labor, employers should be able to attract qualified part time workers and recruiting should be easy. However, the secondary labor market in which part time employment is found may complicate recruiting. Special recruiting channels (e.g., women's employment agencies) may be required in some cases. In other instances, it may be necessary to make special arrangements (e.g., unusual hours, matching of employer and employee schedules, provision of support services such as transportation or child care).

Outcomes. Employers of part time workers have had mixed experiences as to availability and recruitment of qualified people--they are sometimes better, and sometimes worse, but, most frequently, not different from experiences with full time workers in comparable jobs. Neither availability nor recruitment can be claimed a clear advantage or a definite cost of part time employment. There is not always an excess supply of part time workers, to improve their availability and recruiting, and hence it is not usually an incentive for the use of part time employment. The current surplus of full time labor in the occupations studied may also influence results, meaning that availability and recruiting for part time employment are not comparatively better. Employers who do not use part time employment have beliefs similar to those of users. Employment experts who should be better informed on labor market conditions have slightly more favorable beliefs than work unit supervisors (see Table 13).

Table 13. Availability and Recruiting of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Source	Availability			Recruiting		
	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Users' Experiences						
Work Unit Supervisor	24	42	34	17	54	29
Employment Expert	38	38	24	35	41	24
Non-Users' Expectations						
Work Unit Supervisor	35	30	35	16	53	32
Employment Expert	25	32	43	18	36	46

Note: See Table 3 for sample sizes.

Both availability and recruiting experiences may be slightly more favorable among blue collar workers (operative or laborer) than white collar workers, and when the work activity is manufacturing rather than administration. No differences were observed regarding student vs. housewife roles of the part time workers (see Table 14).

Table 14. Effects of Occupation and Work Activity on Availability and Recruiting of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Item	Availability			Recruiting		
	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Work Activity includes						
Administration	38	31	31	31	42	28
Manufacturing	38	50	13	38	50	13
Occupation includes						
White Collar	39	32	29	39	36	25
Blue Collar	50	32	18	48	30	22

Note: The source is employment experts in 39 user companies. Because some employers have part time workers in both occupation and work activity groups, some overlap occurs and actual differences may be greater than those reported here.

When the availability and the recruiting of part time workers differ from those of full time workers, they are quite important in the decision to use or not to use part time employment. Over 60 percent of the users who experience availability differences regard them as important. Recruiting differences are important to 67 percent of the work unit supervisors, and 40 percent of the employment experts. Non-users have similar opinions on the importance of availability and recruiting.

Explanations. Employers confirm that the availability of part time labor is a predictable function of its supply. In some situations, part time workers are less available than full time workers, despite an overall excess supply, because there are shortages of part time people in certain labor market areas and occupations (e.g., clerical workers in Washington, D.C.). This is not a nationwide mismatch in quality or quantity between skills demanded by employers and skills available in the part time work force, but rather a job-area interaction. Availability is not related to the presence or activity of employment agencies, labor unions, or other institutional features.

The explanation for employers' recruiting experiences with part time workers is asymmetrical. When recruiting is easier than for full time workers, the reason is attributed to greater availability. On the other hand, when recruiting is more difficult, it is not due to a shortage of available people or a poorly functioning secondary labor market. Rather, it is due to unusual time scheduling requirements for part time workers. The employer or the employee might have specific time of day or day of week requirements which conflict. For example, an employer might need to cover late afternoons, the precise time when a housewife, for example, would need to be home. In these cases the employer's search process is complicated. Such instances, however, are reported by only a quarter of all employers who use part time workers. Non-users of part time workers, on the other hand, expect different recruiting problems. They are likely to believe recruiting problems would stem from the simple need to recruit more people if part time employment were used, and, therefore, to spend more time on recruiting. They are not usually aware of the scheduling conflict problem with recruiting.

Training

Training costs are usually unaffected by the use of part time employment. But its expansion is sometimes constrained by training costs which non-users expect to be higher for part time than for full time workers.

It is commonly believed that training a part time work force is more costly than a full time force because the smaller amount of time that part time employees spend on the job (even permanent and career-oriented part time employees) reduces the employer's return to the training investment. Some employers, also, believe part time employment will increase the training time required by increasing the number to be trained (one full time job converted to two half time jobs doubles the number of employees). On the other hand, it has also been pointed out that training costs for part time workers may actually be minimal. Some part time people, it is alleged, come fully trained to their work, as in the case of some professionals. Others need very little training, as in some clerical or laborer jobs. In other instances, overqualified people competing for scarce part time jobs may need less training. In general neither of these competing claims are verified by this research.

Outcomes. In a majority of cases, employers' training experiences with part time workers are the same as with full time workers in terms of administrative cost or effort. When there are differences, they are as likely to be better for part time workers as worse. However, the common negative assumptions are still held by non-users. About half of them expect training for part time workers to be more costly and none expect it to be less; their expectations are significantly different from the experiences of users in this regard (see Table 15).

No substantial differences in training experiences are reported for students vs. housewives, for white collar vs. blue collar jobs, or for manufacturing vs. administrative work activities. Since the cost of training for part time workers is usually not measured, these results are based on impressionistic rather than objective sources.

Only a minority of users regard their training experiences for part time workers as important to their part time employment decision. But non-users who

Table 15. Training Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Source	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Users' Experiences			
Work Unit Supervisor	21	54	26
Employment Expert	21	61	18
Non-Users' Expectations			
Work Unit Supervisor	0	50	50
Employment Expert	4	50	46

Notes: See Table 3 for sample sizes. The difference between users' experiences and non-users' expectations for worse vs. equal or better outcomes is statistically significant at $\alpha < .10$ according to a chi-square test.

expected negative training outcomes for part time workers regarded these negative outcomes as important. Therefore, concern about training does appear to be a constraint against usage. Since training is usually not an important disadvantage to employers with part time workers, non-users have unrealistic expectations in this regard.

Explanations. Favorable training outcomes for part time workers are traceable, as predicted, to the lack of a need to provide training on the job beyond a quick orientation, and in a few cases, to the fact that part time workers are already fully trained.

When part time employment is viewed as producing heavier training burdens, the predominant reason is that part time employment involves more people, which results in more training. In general, this is not perceived as a problem by users because there are few cases in which part time workers substitute for full time workers and increase the total number of workers who need training. The reason cited much less often is that it takes longer for the employer to recover his training investment in part time workers since they spend less time on the job during the calendar year than full time workers do (see Table 16).

Recordkeeping

In most cases, part time employment does not increase recordkeeping costs. But recordkeeping constrains usage of part time employment since some non-users expect it to be more costly for part time than full time employment.

Recordkeeping refers to the administrative paper work necessary for each employee, including personnel and payroll records. It is often speculated that recordkeeping is an extra administrative cost of part time employment, either because the total number of workers is increased or because the bookkeeping and scheduling are more complex. Results from this study cast doubt on these assumptions.

Table 16. Explanations for Better and Worse Training Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Explanation	Percent of All Reasons
<u>Better</u>	
Part time jobs do not require training	53
Part time workers are already trained	24
Other	23
<u>Worse</u>	
More people mean more training	55
Investment recovery period is longer	25
Other	20

Source: Open-ended responses of work unit supervisor and employment experts in user and non-user companies; n=17 for Better and n=40 for Worse.

Outcomes. Two-thirds of the respondents indicated no difference between part time and full time employment in terms of recordkeeping burdens. Both work unit supervisors and employment experts agree (see Table 17). A third of the users do experience added recordkeeping costs for part time workers, but only a minority regard those unfavorable outcomes as important. It is therefore likely that recordkeeping costs are small in size and number. Although non-users' expectations are not significantly different from users' experiences overall, roughly half of them do expect unfavorable recordkeeping outcomes and regard those as important. Thus, despite the fact that record-keeping cost increases are insignificant, and concerns about them unwarranted, these concerns may act as constraints against part time employment nevertheless.

Recordkeeping for part time workers is relatively more burdensome when the workers are blue collar workers rather than white collar workers. This is as expected since more records are usually kept for blue collar workers, most of whom are hourly wage workers rather than salary workers for whom time worked records are not often kept. No differences are noted for administrative vs. manufacturing activity or for student vs. housewife status.

Explanations. One-third of the cases report recordkeeping as worse for part time workers, and they give two reasons: part time employment increases the number of workers and hence the amount of records to be kept, or part time employment requires special records to be kept (such as detailed manual reports of time worked as opposed to automated accounting by exception only). These reasons occur in a roughly 55 to 45 percent split, respectively.

Table 17. Recordkeeping for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Sources	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Users' Experiences			
Work Unit Supervisor	0	69	31
Employment Expert	0	68	32
Non-Users' Expectations			
Work Unit Supervisor	5	55	40
Employment Expert	0	46	54

Occupation includes: ^a			
White Collar	0	76	24
Blue Collar	0	53	47

^a Data source is work unit supervisors in 39 user companies.

Note: See Table 3 for sample sizes.

Wages and Fringe Benefits

Total wage costs are sometimes reduced by the use of part time employment and constitute a weak incentive to use it. Fringe benefit costs are not increased by part time employment as it is currently used. Rather some savings are usually experienced because not all benefits are offered, but this saving usually does not motivate the use of part time employment. Non-users do not foresee wage cost savings, nor do they expect higher fringe benefit costs.

Wages and fringe benefits together constitute labor compensation. Theoretical discussions of the economics of compensation for part time employment give conflicting outcomes. There have been some claims that employer wage costs can be reduced by part time employment, which would produce a better fit between size of labor input and size of work load. Wage costs may also be reduced if part time employees are paid a lessser wage rate than full time employees. On the other hand, part time employment is alleged to cause higher fringe benefit costs to employers than full time workers. However, not all fringe benefits need to be paid to part time workers, so that in fact lower fringe benefit payments are possible.

Fringe benefits include statutory benefits, compensatory benefits, and supplementary benefits. Statutory benefits are taxes fixed by law: social security, unemployment insurance, disability insurance, and workmen's compensation. Among these, social security is potentially more expensive for part time employees. At present employers pay a tax of 5.85 percent on the

earnings of all employees only up to a ceiling of \$16,500. If an employer replaces one full time employee with two part time workers, the employer's total social security payments would increase if the two part time salaries together exceed \$16,500. This seems unlikely in practice. Unemployment insurance costs may be higher, especially since the ceiling is quite low, but they are small in magnitude. On the other hand, part time employees are ineligible for unemployment compensation in some states, and thus unemployment insurance costs might be lower.

Compensatory benefits--paid vacation, holiday and sick leave--are payments for time not worked. Their cost should be about equal for full and part time employees because they can be easily prorated.

Supplementary benefits include health and life insurance, pensions, profit sharing, stock purchase, and tuition payments. These benefits, if offered, cost the employer proportionately more for part time workers, even if part time workers make the same dollar contribution as full time workers, because the employer's contribution is spread over less labor input received (or contributions are made twice for the same labor input received if two half time workers replace one full time worker). Of course, it is possible to prorate most of these benefits to hours worked, but that usually involves renegotiation of contracts with insurance carriers.

Provisions of the Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1975 may be of particular significance to the use of part time employment. This act requires all employees who work over 1,000 hours a year (half time) to be treated the same as full time employees with respect to vesting of pensions, making part time employment which exceeds half time more costly to the employer.

Outcomes. Wage costs of part time employment are lower than those for full time employment in one-fifth of all the cases. But there is no saving in wage costs in two-thirds of the cases.

In contrast, fringe benefit costs are cheaper for part time employees in more than half of the cases. Employment experts, with their broader view, are a bit more likely to see higher fringe benefit costs than are work unit supervisors. Still, twice as many employment experts report lower rather than higher fringe benefit costs. Non-users have roughly similar expectations. If there are any differences, non-users are less inclined to expect wage cost savings and lower fringe benefit costs than users in fact experience (see Table 18).

Among users of part time employment, about 44 percent paid no fringe benefits to part time workers. About 10 percent offered only prorated vacation and sick leave, while an additional 12 percent offered vacation and sick leave plus some form of group life and health insurance. Roughly a third of all users made the full range of fringe benefits, including pension benefits, available to part time workers.

Table 18. Wage Costs and Fringe Benefits for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Source	Wage Costs			Fringe Benefits		
	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Users' Experiences						
Work Unit Supervisor	21	66	13	67	25	8
Employment Expert	24	71	5	50	26	24
Non-Users' Expectations						
Work Unit Supervisor	5	90	5	35	50	15
Employment Expert	19	74	7	43	29	28
Occupation includes:						
White Collar	18	75	7	50	25	25
Blue Collar	30	65	4	65	22	13
Work Activity includes:						
Administration	24	69	7	48	28	24
Manufacturing	24	77	0	71	24	6

Note: See Table 3 for sample sizes.

Wage and fringe benefit savings may be slightly more frequent for blue collar part time workers and in manufacturing work activities than for white collar workers and administrative work activities. They are unaffected by the student vs. housewife role of the part time workers.

Differences in wage costs for part time compared to full time employment are important to 45 percent of the work unit supervisors and 55 percent of the employment experts in user companies. Fringe benefit differences are important to only 38 percent of these. Non-users attach the same degree of importance to these outcomes.

Explanations. When wage cost savings are an outcome of part time employment, there are two explanations. The more frequent is that part time workers get a smaller rate of pay than full time workers. This arises usually not from unequal pay for equal work, but rather from unequal work or from lack of promotion. If there is discrimination against part time workers it is likely to be occupational discrimination rather than direct wage discrimination. The second reason for reduced wage costs under part time employment is that wages are paid only for hours worked. This reflects both the ability of the employer to match more closely the size of his work force to the work load, and the view that part time workers, who spend fewer hours on the job, actually spend more time working while on the job than do full time workers.

When fringe benefit costs are reduced under part time employment, the simple reason is that not all benefits are paid. When benefit costs are increased, the employer may pay a proportionately higher cost for part time workers' fringe benefits, or he may pay for more complicated fringe benefit administration (see Table 19).

Table 19. Explanations of Better and Worse Wage and Fringe Benefit Costs for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Explanation	Percent of All Reasons
<u>For Wage Cost</u>	
<u>Better</u>	
Smaller rate of pay	61
Pay only for hours worked	39
<u>For Fringe Benefit Cost</u>	
<u>Better</u>	
Not all fringe benefits paid	100
<u>Worse</u>	
Some fringe benefits cost proportionately more	67
Fringe benefit administration is more complicated	33

Source: Open-ended responses of work unit supervisors and employment experts in user and non-user companies; for wage cost, n=23 for Better, and for Fringe Benefit Costs, n=65 for Better and n=18 for Worse.

Thus, although labor compensation is frequently a benefit and is rarely a cost of part time employment, it is not a chief reason to explain the use of

part time employment. In particular, lower fringe benefit costs are seldom sought after and do not motivate employers' use of part time workers. Neither do fringe benefit costs stand in the way of the expansion of part time employment, since only a few non-users have negative expectations which are important to them.

C. Work Management

Supervision

Supervision is seen as a disadvantage of part time employment in a substantial number of cases, due mainly to scheduling complexities. But it is not a major cost; part time employment is used successfully nevertheless. However, expected supervision problems are a barrier to its adoption by non-users.

Theoretically it seems likely that the supervisory function will be made more difficult by part time employment, either because it increases the number of employees or because it introduces new problems of scheduling, coordination, and communication.

Outcomes. According to the supervisors themselves, the supervision of part time workers is more difficult than that of full time workers in about half the cases, with the balance seeing no difference. Employment experts from their vantage point are slightly less unfavorable than work unit supervisors. Among non-users there is a slightly greater frequency of unfavorable expectations than users' experiences would warrant, but the difference is not statistically significant.

Supervision experiences are only very slightly affected by the occupation of the part time workers, with perhaps somewhat less unfavorable results for blue collar rather than white collar workers. Student vs. housewife roles for part time workers make little or no difference (see Table 20).

Users of part time workers who experience worse supervision often do not regard that negative outcome as important. Fewer than half (47 percent) of the supervisors themselves are concerned about it, and employment experts attach even less importance to these experiences. Thus relatively few users consider supervisory problems to be a major cost. Conversely, however, among non-users who expect supervision to be worse, 70 percent attach high importance to that expectation. Thus negative supervision expectations are a bar to part time employment in a substantial number of cases.

Explanations. The dominant reason for unfavorable supervision experiences with part time workers is scheduling problems, accounting for almost two-thirds of all negative responses. Either there is more scheduling of workers to be done because there are more workers or scheduling is harder because part time workers are not continuously available or work irregular schedules. Thus part of the difficulty in supervising part time people rests not with the people themselves, but with the situation in the company, i.e., the employer's needs, which necessitated their being hired in the first place.

Table 20. Supervision of Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Data Source	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
Users' Experiences			
Work Unit Supervisor	0	51	49
Employment Expert	8	57	35
Non-Users' Expectations			
Work Unit Supervisor	0	40	60
Employment Expert	4	30	67
Occupation includes: ^a			
White Collar	0	48	52
Blue Collar	0	59	41

Note: See Table 3 for sample sizes.

^a The data source is 39 work unit supervisors in user companies.

A second reason explaining supervision problems is that more communication is required or communications are more difficult. Other potential supervision problems, such as more work starts, stops, and changeovers, or unresponsive and uncooperative employees, do not materialize, and were only infrequently raised by non-users (see Table 21).

Table 21. Explanations for Worse Supervision for Part Time Compared to Full Time Workers

Explanation	Percent of All Reasons
More work/worker scheduling required or more difficult work/worker scheduling	65
More communications required or more difficult to communicate	23
More work starts, stops, and changeovers	7
Part time workers are less responsive, cooperative	5

Source: Open-ended responses of work unit supervisors and employment experts in using and non-using companies; n = 57.

Overtime

The potential for reduced overtime through the use of part time employment is a large incentive to use it. But many non-users do not foresee this benefit.

In principle, it is often suggested that employers could use part time employment instead of paying overtime to full time employees, especially for staffing extended hours or meeting peak demand in service organizations (such as banks), or for covering the partial shift often required in manufacturing. This research suggests that such savings are common with part time employment and a significant advantage to its use.

Outcomes and Explanations. A large majority of users--68 percent of work unit supervisors and even more employment experts--rate part time employment as better than full time because it enables them to avoid scheduling overtime. Over half believe these outcomes are important and have quantitative measures of them.

In spite of this advantage, it is unlikely that overtime savings are an incentive for the adoption of part time employment by other employers. Only a third of the non-users studied expected overtime savings to be a benefit of part time employment.

Although overtime savings were common for all categories of users, they were more likely to be experienced in white collar jobs and administrative work activities than in blue collar jobs and manufacturing activities (see Table 22

Equipment and Facilities

In most cases, the utilization of equipment and facilities is unchanged by the use of part time employment and does not explain its use. When these considerations are decisively better or worse, they are equally as likely to be a benefit as a cost, and so no general direction of influence can be predicted.

It has been claimed that part time employment can increase machine time or otherwise extend the utilization of capital equipment. For example, scheduling part time workers at either early or late hours, as in a second mini-shift, enables space and equipment to be used longer each day. On the other hand, part time scheduling could add to equipment needs, including offices, desks, typewriters, or tools, if duplication is needed for split jobs.

Outcomes and Explanations. Neither more efficient utilization of facilities nor its opposite, increased equipment needs, is a usual experience with part time employment. For the most part, part time employment does not affect the use of equipment and facilities. It is not a decision variable and does not explain the use of part time employment in the majority of cases. But when there is an effect, whether better or worse, it is important--67 percent of work unit supervisors and 79 percent of employment experts regard those differences as important. The likelihood of favorable equipment experiences may be slightly higher for white collar than for blue collar occupations. Both work unit supervisors and employment experts concur in these results, and the expectations of non-users are similar to the experiences of users. Thus only a small number of non-users are constrained from adopting part time employment due to equipment and facilities; almost none are encouraged to adopt it (see Table 23).

Table 22. Overtime Payments under Part Time Compared to Full Time Employment

Data Source	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
User's Experiences			
Work Unit Supervisor	68	29	3
Employment Expert	76	22	3
Non-User's Expectations			
Work Unit Supervisor	35	55	10
Employment Expert	25	54	21

Occupation includes: ^a			
White Collar	72	24	4
Blue Collar	56	44	0
Work Activity includes: ^a			
Administration	80	15	5
Manufacturing			

Notes: See Table 3 for sample sizes. Differences between users' experiences and non-users' expectations are statistically significant at $\alpha < .10$ according to a chi-square test on Better vs. Equal or Worse.

^a Data source is work unit supervisors in 39 user companies; since some employers have part time workers in both occupations and work activities, some overlap occurs, and differences may be greater than reported.

Table 23. Equipment and Facilities Outcomes for Part Time Compared to Full Time Employment

Data Source	Better (percent of responses)	Equal	Worse
User's Experiences			
Work Unit Supervisors	18	61	21
Employment Experts	14	76	11
Non-User's Expectations			
Work Unit Supervisors	5	70	25
Employment Experts	4	63	33

Occupation includes: ^a			
White Collar	25	54	21
Blue Collar	6	77	18

Note: See Table 3 for sample sizes and Table 20 for Note 'a'.

D. Summary of Findings

Taking into account all job performance, personnel administration, and work management experiences, the net effect is a weak positive economic outcome for permanent part time employment; on the average, there is a small net benefit. A few of the outcomes constitute weak incentives to use part time employment, but they are not compelling. They are reduced overtime costs, increased productivity, reduced absenteeism, reduced wage costs, and to a lesser extent, reduced fringe benefit costs. But many other outcomes either are not affected by part time employment, e.g., equipment and facilities requirements, co-worker relationships, and training requirements, or are unpredictable because they generate benefits as frequently as costs. These unpredictable outcomes are the availability, recruitment, and turnover of part time workers. No outcomes impose strong economic costs on the employer. Variables suspected of causing problems--recordkeeping, supervision, promotability, and loyalty--actually have little negative effect. Overall, most of the performance, administrative, and management outcomes for part time employment are frequently not different from those of full time employment. When they are different, employers frequently do not see them as important (see Chart 2).

Of course there are a lot of negative expectations about the benefits and costs of part time employment among employers who do not use it. The chief economic constraint against its use is expectations of high turnover. Other expected costs that matter are problems with supervision and recordkeeping, high training costs, low productivity, and worse promotability than for full time workers. Expected unfavorable results with absenteeism and recruiting are lesser constraints. Non-users expect, nevertheless, that both overtime and fringe benefit costs are advantages of part time employment (see Chart 3).

The use vs. non-use of part time employment cannot be explained by economic benefits and costs alone. Not only are outcomes frequently the same for part and full time employment (or not important if they are different), but for several outcomes, non-user expectations are in rough agreement with user experiences. This is the case for overtime costs (incentive), loyalty (a weak constraint), availability (unpredictable), and co-worker relationships and equipment and facilities (no effect). They also agree on the direction of influence but not the strength of that influence in the cases of fringe benefits (positive), and supervision, recordkeeping, and promotability (negative).

The most important economic outcome in explaining the use vs. non-use of part time employment is productivity--users experience it as a benefit, but non-users expect it to be a cost. This divergence is true, to a lesser degree, for absenteeism. In addition, non-users do not recognize possibilities for wage cost savings with part time employment, and they are somewhat less likely to foresee overtime savings (see Chart 4).

The industry of the employer usually does not affect the benefits and costs of part time employment, but the occupation of the part time employee often does. However, neither major occupational group--white collar office workers vs. blue collar production workers--has an overall edge. White collar part time workers (mainly clerical) appear to surpass blue collar on two job performance variables--turnover and absenteeism--and on two management variables--overtime costs and equipment and facilities costs. On the other hand, blue collar part time workers

Chart 2. Summary of Users' Experiences with Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment, Their Importance, and Their Effect on the Use of Part Time Employment

Benefit/Cost Variable	Experience: Part Time vs. Full Time	Important to Decision to Use Part Time	Effect on Use of Part Time Employment
Job Performance			
Productivity	Equal or Better ^a	Usually	Weak incentive
Turnover	Mixed	Half the time	Unpredictable
Absenteeism	Equal or Better	Half the time	Weak incentive
Promotability	Equal or Worse	Seldom ^b	Little effect
Loyalty	Equal or Worse	Seldom	Little effect
Co-Worker Relationships	Equal	Seldom	No effect
Personnel Administration			
Availability	Mixed	Usually	Unpredictable
Recruiting	Mixed	Half the time ^b	Unpredictable
Training	Equal	Seldom ^b	No effect
Recordkeeping	Equal or Worse	Seldom ^b	Little effect
Wage costs	Equal or Better	Half the time	Weak incentive
Fringe benefits	Equal or Better ^c	Seldom	Little effect
Work Management			
Supervision	Equal or Worse	Seldom ^b	Little effect
Overtime costs	Better	Usually	Incentive
Equipment	Equal	Usually	No effect

^aWork unit supervisors are less positive than employment experts.

^bWork unit supervisors attach more importance than employment experts.

^cWork unit supervisors are more positive than employment experts.

Source: Tables 3 through 23.

(operatives and laborers) may have an advantage on three quite important personnel administration variables--availability, recruiting, and wage costs. No differences are found on productivity. Part time workers who are housewives in their other role are occasionally superior to students, especially in turnover and absenteeism (see Chart 5).

These results mean that if part time employees are housewives in clerical jobs, reduced turnover compared to full time employees becomes a clear benefit of part time employment and an incentive to use it, rather than being unpredictable. For students in blue collar jobs, turnover becomes a cost. These results also mean that availability and recruiting are likely to be incentives to use part time employment in operative and laborer jobs, rather than mixed in their effects.

Chart 3. Summary of Expectations of Non-Users About Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment, Their Importance, and Their Effect on Non-Use of Part Time Employment

Benefit/Cost Variable	Expectation: Part Time vs. Full Time	Important to Decisions Not to Use Part Time	Effect on Non- Use of Part Time Employment
Job Performance			
Productivity	Equal or Worse	Usually	Constraint
Turnover	Worse	Usually	Constraint
Absenteeism	Equal or Worse	Half the time	Constraint
Promotability	Worse ^a	Half the time	Constraint
Loyalty	Equal or Worse	Seldom	Little effect
Co-Worker relationships	Equal	Seldom	No effect
Personnel Administration			
Availability	Mixed	Half the time	Unpredictable
Recruiting	Equal or Worse	Half the time	Constraint
Training	Equal or Worse	Usually	Constraint
Recordkeeping	Equal or Worse	Usually	Constraint
Wage costs	Equal	No data	No effect
Fringe benefits	Equal or Better	Half the time	Incentive
Work Management			
Supervision	Equal or Worse	Usually	Constraint
Overtime costs	Equal or Better	Half the time	Incentive
Equipment	Equal	Usually	No effect

^aWork unit supervisors are less positive than employment experts.
Source: Tables 3 through 23.

Three qualifications are necessary. First, although the economic outcome for part time employment appears on the average to be a small net benefit, the experiences of an individual user company may be substantially more positive on any one of the individual economic outcomes. Conversely, not all the benefits may be obtained. There is considerable variation in experiences from user to user.

Second, although users experience positive economic benefits, on balance, it does not follow that non-users would necessarily reap the same benefits. Obtaining economic benefits depends in part on the job and the characteristics of the worker, as reported in this chapter. It also depends on a combination of other factors, including work technology and labor market conditions, as is reported in succeeding chapters.

Third, all these results must be taken with caution because they are based on a small sample and because the study is exploratory.

Chart 4. Summary of Effects of Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment on Decision by Users and Non-Users Whether to Use It

Effect on Decision	User	Non-User
Weak Incentive	Overtime costs Productivity Absenteeism Wage costs Fringe benefits	Overtime costs Fringe benefits
No effect	Equipment Relationships Training	Equipment Relationships Wage costs
Weak constraint	Loyalty Promotability Recordkeeping Supervision	Loyalty
Constraint		Absenteeism Recruiting Productivity Training Recordkeeping Promotability Supervision Turnover
Unpredictable	Availability Recruiting Turnover	Availability

Source: Charts 2 and 3.

Chart 5. Summary of Effects of Occupation, Work Activity, and Student vs. Housewife Role on Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment

Occupation			
Better Experiences for White Collar	Blue Collar	No Differences	No data
Turnover	Availability	Productivity	Relationships
Absenteeism	Recruiting	Promotability	
Recordkeeping	Loyalty	Training	
Overtime costs	Wage costs		
Equipment	Fringe benefits		
	Supervision		

Work Activity			
Better Experiences for Administration	Manufacturing	No Differences	No data
Absenteeism	Availability	Productivity	Relationships
Overtime	Recruiting	Turnover	
	Fringe benefits	Promotability	
		Loyalty	
		Recordkeeping	
		Training	
		Wage costs	
		Equipment	
		Supervision	

Student vs. Housewife Role			
Better Experiences for Student	Housewife	No Differences	No data
	Turnover	Productivity	Relationships
	Absenteeism	Availability	
	Loyalty	Recruiting	
		Promotability	
		Training	
		Recordkeeping	
		Wage costs	
		Fringe benefits	
		Supervision	
		Overtime	
		Equipment	

Source: Tables 3 through 23.

CHAPTER IV. WORK TECHNOLOGY AND EXTERNAL FORCES: HOW THEY AFFECT PART TIME EMPLOYMENT

The use or non-use of permanent part time employment might be explained by the nature of the work to be done and the work setting. It is commonly believed that part time employment is suitable for some jobs but not others, and more appropriate for some work settings than others. These hypotheses are tested in this chapter.

Work technology has two separate but related meanings in this study. One refers to the technology of the job task--the nature of the job and what it takes to do it. Examples of job technologies include requirements for teamwork, co-worker cooperation, communication, training, supervisory support, supervisory responsibility, policy making responsibility, and problem solving. Job technology also refers to characteristics of the job such as repetitiveness, stress, discrete tasks, and continuous process or service operations.

The other meaning of technology refers to the technology of the work unit and to the external demands made on it. For example, work unit technologies refer to the time pattern of demand for the output of the work unit, such as extended hours of operation or cyclical demand. It also refers to work or worker scheduling complexities, a non-standard size of workload, special projects, and the rate of change in the work unit.

A. Suggestions from Previous Research

There are two sets of reasons why work technology is thought to affect the use of part time employment. First, part time employment is used more frequently in some industries and occupations than in others. Second, previous studies have attempted to identify specific work technologies for which part time employment is more vs. less suited.

Occupational and Industrial Usage Patterns. Occupationally, the maximum use of part time employment of women occurs among sales workers and service workers, where 18.0 percent and 16.1 percent, respectively, are part time year around workers. The minimum use for women is among operatives where only 5.0 percent are part time year around workers. For men the range is from a high of 9.0 percent for service workers and 7.9 percent for laborers to a low of 1.6 percent for craft workers and 2.2 percent for managers and administrators. Thus the high use occupations, relatively speaking, have $3\frac{1}{2}$ times more part time workers than the low use occupations in the case of women, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ times more in the case of men. Industrially, the disparity is even greater. Part time year around women workers account for 26.8 percent of all women workers in private households and 15.2 percent of all women workers in wholesale and retail trades, but only 2.9 percent in durable goods manufacturing--a 9 to 1 gap at the extreme. For men, part time year around workers account for 7.8 percent of all workers in wholesale and retail trades, and only 1.0 percent in durable goods manufacturing

and .7 percent in mining--an 11 to 1 gap.¹ The unevenness in the incidence of part time year around employment may reflect supply side availabilities of part time workers, but previous studies suggest it may instead be a demand side, technology-based result.

Appropriate Work Technologies. Those job technologies which previous studies have suggested are especially appropriate for part time employment include discrete tasks, repetitive work, and stressful work. Discrete tasks means tasks that have a clear beginning and end and are relatively self-contained (e.g., conducting a laboratory test, typing a manuscript, processing a payroll, examining an insurance claim). Part time employment may be well suited to these jobs because they have minimum supervision and communication requirements (which are sometimes problems with part time employment) and because they are minimally affected by work start-ups and stops. Repetitive work (found in many clerical jobs) and stressful work (either mentally taxing or emotionally demanding) ought to be suited to part time employment because work done in short blocks of time will provide fresher, less bored, less fatigued, and more alert workers.

Work unit technologies which are thought suited to part time employment include cyclical demand and extended hours of operation. Cyclical demand refers to regular peaks and troughs over the day or week in the demand for the product or service of the work unit. Extended hours of operations refers to hours of business beyond normal daytime weekday hours. Cyclical demand and extended hours are illustrated by banks or retail stores which have heavy midday traffic and evening or weekend openings. Work units which face these technologies might be especially amenable to part time employment because it would enable them to better match the size of their work force to the varying size of their work load. In general, since goods can be produced for inventory or stock whereas services cannot, uneven demand for services is more likely to make part time employment economically advantageous than is uneven demand for goods. This feature, in addition to work technology, may explain the greater use of part time employment in service industries than in manufacturing industries.²

The major job technology which previous studies suggest is not appropriate for part time employment is continuous work flow: continuous process as in assembly line manufacturing, continuous service as with some customer contacts (such as inside or telephone sales jobs), and continuous supervision as in some management and administrative jobs. The use of part time employment in continuous work flow technologies may cause disruptions and scheduling difficulties and may thus impair the quality of work done or service provided. In the case of managers, continuous availability may be required, with coordination and follow-through responsibilities that may be harder to do under part time employment.

Two other job technologies for which part time employment may be ill-suited are requirements for extensive communication and teamwork with co-workers.

¹The source is U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1976.

²We are indebted to John Owen for this point.

Because part time workers are not always present, communications and teamwork may suffer. Finally, part time employment may be incompatible with requirements for extensive training, which is less profitable for an employer to provide to a part time worker.

B. Work Technology and the Use of Part Time Employment

The incidence of each job and work unit technology is reported in this section, both for users and non-users of part time employment. The objective is to determine if users have different technologies from non-users. In addition, users were asked (open-ended) why they use part time employment, and non-users were similarly asked why they do not use it. These answers are interpreted in terms of work technology. The findings permit provisional conclusions about the role of work technology in explaining the use or non-use of part time employment. Because the sample is small and the findings based on respondents' opinions, the conclusions must be regarded as suggestive.

Technology of the Job Task

The job task technology which most favors the use of part time employment is discrete job tasks. Those technologies which discourage its use are continuous process operations and supervisory responsibility. Several other technologies previously thought ill-suited to part time employment, such as teamwork and heavy supervisory support, are in fact not incompatible.

Three job task technologies occur in most of the part time jobs studied: the work is routine and repetitive (items 1 and 2 in Table 24 below), teamwork and help from co-workers is required (items 3 and 4), and job tasks are discrete (item 5). Routine and repetitive work and discrete job tasks are expected job technologies for part time employment, but teamwork and co-worker help are not. Nevertheless, they are very often present in part time employment. (The meaning given to teamwork by employers is quite broad, however, and not restricted to mean literally a work group). Extensive supervisory support and guidance is required in part time jobs over half the time (items 6 and 8), and over half of all part time jobs require problem solving, albeit with clear cut answers (items 9 and 10).

All these job technologies, with one exception, are also found among comparable full time jobs in similar occupations, and so they do not distinguish part time from full time employment. However, discrete job tasks are found significantly more often in part time than in comparable full time jobs, and may therefore help explain the use or non-use of part time employment.

Continuous process work technology is found in half of all the part time jobs studied; this casts doubt on the belief that the two are incompatible. Yet continuous process job technology is significantly less frequent among part time than among full time jobs at similar occupational levels, and thus it appears to discourage the use of part time employment.

Job technologies which are usually not found in part time work are policy making responsibility, uncertainty about how to do the job, and supervisory responsibility (items 23, 22, and 21 in Table 24). Likewise, the former two

Table 24. Job Technologies of Part Time and Full Time Jobs in Similar Occupations

Job Technology	Percent of All Part Time Jobs	Percent of Full Time Jobs in Sim- ilar Occupation
1. The work can be broken down into routine steps.	86	80
2. The work is repetitive.	82	85
3. Workers cannot easily complete their tasks without help from their co-workers.	79	80
4. Teamwork is used.	77	84
5. Job tasks are discrete.	74	55
6. Workers cannot easily complete their tasks without guidance or direction from supervisors.	72	73
7. More than one worker works on a given task from beginning to end.	64	40
8. Extensive supervisory support is required.	56	45
9. Problem solving is required.	56	50
10. Problems with clear-cut methods of working out answers are frequently solved.	55	67
11. The work is continuous process.*	54	79
12. Company-paid training is required.	46	50
13. Workers must frequently communicate with others to complete their tasks.	45	47
14. The job involves mental or physical stress.	44	35
15. Extensive internal communication is required.	41	60
16. The image of the job or worker is important.	36	50
17. Supervisors must watch even the best employees do their work to ensure the work goes smoothly.	35	33
18. Extensive external communication is required.	33	5
19. Workers are isolated so that communication is limited.	28	47
20. The work is dirty.	23	30
21. The job includes supervisory responsibility.*	18	55
22. There is uncertainty about how to do the job.	11	10
23. The job includes policy making responsibility.	10	20

Notes: The source is work unit supervisors (n = 39 for users (Column 1); n = 29 for non-users (Column 2)).

* indicates the difference between part time and full time jobs is statistically significant at $\alpha < .10$ according to a chi square test.

job technologies are seldom found in comparable full time jobs; they are not characteristic of jobs in the clerical, operative, and laborer occupational groups which were studied, and have little to do with the choice of part time or full time staffing in these occupations. Supervisory responsibility, on the other hand, is found in over half the full time jobs in these occupations, and thus distinguishes part time from full time employment.

All other job technologies are found in part time jobs with moderate frequencies. Training and extensive internal communication, previously thought to be inappropriate for part time employment, are found in 46 percent and 41 percent of the cases, respectively. These frequencies are somewhat lower than for full time jobs, but not significantly so. Part time jobs in the sample were characterized by stress 44 percent of the time, which is not much more frequent than full time jobs.

Another technology classification scheme (Thompson, 1967) which reinforces these results shows that of all part time jobs studied, over half are long-linked (typical mass production assembly operations where part A has to be finished before part B can begin), a third are mediating (linking of customers and employees to accomplish a fairly standardized operation such as bank tellers, sales people, telephone operators), and only 10 percent are intensive technologies (applying a variety of techniques to complex problems, as in professional or managerial work). Although they are not identical concepts, the frequency of the long-linked technology and continuous process work previously reported is nearly the same for part time jobs.

Table 25. Technology of Part Time Jobs

Technology	Percent of All Part Time Jobs
Long linked (mass production assembly operation)	55
Mediating (linking customers and employees)	35
Intensive (complex problem solving)	10
Total	100

Notes: The source is work unit supervisors in 29 companies. See for further explanation of these technologies and their definitions summarized above.

Work Unit Technology

Cyclical demand for the output of the work unit favors the use of part time employment.

One work unit technology--cyclical demand for output--is usually present when there are part time employees. This supports the belief that using part time workers enables a better fit between the size of the work force and the amount of work to be done. However, many non-user work units also have cyclical demand, so that it does not compel the use of part time employment.

A non-standard size of work load (meaning that the work to be done in the job is usually less than or more than an eight hour a day or 40 hour a week job) is reported by just fewer than half the employers who use part time workers. But it is reported significantly less often by non-users, and thus it is a work unit technology which distinguishes users from non-users. It is further evidence that part time employment aids in fitting the work force to the size of the work load.

Extended hours of operation, thought to be especially appropriate for part time employment, occur in just over a third of the work units in this sample which use part time workers. While this is a surprisingly small number, it may be due to the exclusion of enterprises in the retail sales industry and thus not representative (see Table 26).

Other work unit technologies which were measured include complex scheduling, special projects, and rapid change in the work unit. Complex scheduling refers to production and labor scheduling in which the coordination of workers, machines, and raw materials is difficult, as in some fabrication or assembly work. Special projects refers not to temporary assignments but rather to a usual work activity which consists of a flow of projects which differ from each other, such as a succession of government contracts. Rapid change in the work unit refers to either changes in production processes or to changes in personnel or organizational structure, as might be true in scientific or fast growing companies.

These work unit technologies may either favor or hinder part time employment. The flexibility and fine tuning which part time employment provides might make complex scheduling easier, but the availability of part time workers (since many are students or housewives) to fit into specific labor time schedules may prevent their use. The same flexibility may also encourage part time employment when work units have special projects, but on the other hand special projects may require frequent training which discourages part time employment. Rapid changes may be conducive to part time employment, especially at high occupational levels, because of enhanced cross-fertilization of ideas stemming from a larger and more diverse collection of employees. But unstable organizations may avoid part time employees if they are less well socialized into the organization and hence have less predictable or trustworthy behavior, which is critical when formal structures are changeable.

Both complex schedules and special projects are characteristic of more than half the work units with part time workers, while rapid change applies to a third. None occurs with significantly different frequencies among non-user work units, and thus these work unit technologies do not explain the use or non-use of part time employment.

Table 26. Technology of the Work Unit in Work Units Using and Not Using Part Time Employees

Technology	Percent of All User Work Units	Percent of All Non-User Work Units
Cyclical demand for output of the unit	79	65
Complex scheduling of work or workers	59	45
Special projects are undertaken	55	40
Size of work load is not standard full time*	43	11
Extended hours of operation of work unit	37	20
Rapid change in work unit	35	40

Notes: The source is work unit supervisors in 39 user and 20 non-user companies.

*indicates a statistically significant difference between users and non-users at $\alpha < .10$ according to a chi square test.

Why is Part Time Employment Used or Not Used?

Reasons based on work technology are the most frequent explanations which employers offer for their use of part time employment. Usage permits a better fit between the size of the labor input and the size of the work load and solves scheduling problems.

The open-ended responses of employers to an initial question on why they use or do not use part time employment are overwhelmingly cast in terms of work technology. Most employers (85 percent) use part time employment in part because it permits them to solve a scheduling problem by better fitting the size of their labor input to the size of their work load. These situations are illustrated by cyclical demand, complex scheduling, non-standard size of work load, and extended hours of operation.

The second major reason which employers offer for their use of part time employment is that it permits labor compensation costs to be minimized, either via smaller total base wages, less overtime, or smaller fringe benefit payments. Although half the employers offered at least one of these reasons, no single one of them was offered by more than a quarter of all employers. Of course, labor compensation costs may be reduced by accomplishing a better fit between the size of the work load and the size of the labor input. But employers are less likely to think in terms of labor cost savings than they are to think directly in terms of scheduling problems and work load management.

Labor supply conditions--either that part time workers were abundantly available or that full time workers were hard to get--were occasionally important.³ On the average, about two separate reasons were offered for using part time employment. The opinions of work unit supervisors correspond very closely with those of employment experts (see Table 27).

Among non-users the "no perceived need" response which occurred 54 percent of the time is perhaps tied to the absence of work technologies which give rise to scheduling problems. Non-users queried in this study have not so much decided against part time employment as they have never felt any compelling need to try it.

Jobs Not Suited to Part Time Employment

Most employers believe management and supervisory jobs are not suited to part time employment due mainly to job requirements such as continuity and continuous availability.

The relationship between work technology and the use of part time employment--heavy in some occupations and very light in others--may be a supply side phenomenon (the workers are not available for certain jobs) or a demand side phenomenon (employers do not want part time workers in certain jobs). In the particular case of managers and administrators, very few of whom are part time employees, the evidence is that it is a demand side phenomenon dependent on the technology of the job task.

³This finding is quite different from the European experience of the 1960's when widespread labor shortages motivated a rapid increase in part time employment.

Table 27. Reasons Why Part Time Employment Is Used or Not Used

Reason	Percent of Employers
<u>Users</u>	
Fit labor force to work load	85
Reduce total labor compensation costs	56
Minimize total base wages	26
Reduce overtime wages	15
Reduce fringe benefit costs	15
Labor supply--many part time or few full time workers	13
Avoid personnel ceilings	5
Other	31
TOTAL	190

<u>Non-Users</u>	
No perceived need	54
Labor union influence	13
Labor supply--hard to get part time	13
Work load or scheduling does not fit with part time	8
Other	17
TOTAL	100

Source: Open-ended questions asked of employment experts in 42 users and 26 non-user companies.

A large majority of employment experts--about 82 percent overall (both users and non-users)--agree that there are some jobs in their company which they would be reluctant to offer on a part time basis (this confirms earlier findings; e.g., ILO 1963, Klein 1965, Hallaire 1968). A majority also agree that managers and supervisors are jobs that fall in that unsuited category. However, fewer work unit supervisors--55 percent--judge part time employment unsuited to management jobs than do company employment experts.

C. The Effects of Work Technology on the Benefits and Costs of Part Time Employment

Do job and work unit technologies affect employers' experiences with part time employment? Do they alter the benefits and costs of using part time workers? These questions are explored by analyzing the frequency of better vs. worse experiences for part time compared to full time workers in the presence and in the absence of each relevant job and work unit technology. Because the sample size is small, only simple associations can be suggested.

Effects on Job Performance

Job performance outcomes of part time employment may be affected by several work technologies. Discrete tasks and cyclical demand may be associated with especially favorable experiences, while continuous process operations may be associated with some worsened results.

Productivity. The productivity of part time compared to full time workers may be improved in the presence of both the major work technologies--discrete job tasks and cyclical demand for output--which favor the use of part time employment. Productivity may also be enhanced in jobs which have high stress, as is expected due to shorter working periods of part time workers, and in jobs which have high internal and external communications requirements, which is not expected.

Continuous process operations may be damaging to the productivity of part time workers, thus adding to the discouraging effect which this work technology has on part time employment. Negative productivity consequences may also be found when teamwork is required; although teamwork is often a part of part time jobs, it may have some adverse effects on job performance.

Some work technologies are predicted to have mixed effects on productivity, and the results bear out the predictions. For example, jobs which require training will make the productivity of part time workers either equal to that of full time workers if the training is actually provided, or worse, if it is not provided. Work units with complex scheduling may experience improved productivity from part time workers if they facilitate the scheduling problem, or worsened productivity if matching their schedules to the work schedule is difficult (see Chart 6).

Turnover and Absenteeism. The absenteeism of part time compared to full time workers may be improved when their jobs are characterized by stress (which is more bearable in short doses) and by teamwork (which may produce a feeling of belonging which is often lacking in part time workers, and which may make absenteeism more damaging). Turnover is likewise relatively improved in stressful jobs.

Turnover of part time workers is less often worse than, and more often equal to, that of full time workers when their jobs require company-provided training. When training is provided, both worker and employer need time to recover the training investment, giving an incentive to remain with the company.

Promotability, Loyalty, and Co-Worker Relationships. The promotability (competence and willingness to take responsibility) of part time employees and their loyalty may be both more highly rated when their jobs have discrete tasks, and when there is cyclical demand for output. This adds to the list of favorable economic outcomes associated with these two key work technologies. In addition, promotability may be improved when there is teamwork, when image is important, when extensive supervisory support is required, when there is rapid change in personnel, production methods, or organization structure, and when there are special projects. In each of these technologies the part time employee is more likely to be noticed and treated as a regular employee. On the other hand, promotability may be worsened when there are continuous process operations.

Chart 6. Effects of Job and Work Unit Technologies on Job Performance Experiences
with Part Time Employment

Experience and Technology	Direction of Effect Predicted	Actual	Quantitative Effect: Frequency of Better and Worse Experiences When Technology is Present vs. Absent
<u>Productivity</u>			
Discrete Tasks	Better	Better	Better is 29 vs. 20 percent; Worse not affected.
Stress	Better	Better	Better is 33 vs. 18 percent; Worse not affected.
Teamwork	Worse	Worse	Better is 22 vs. 29 percent; Worse is 17 vs. 07 percent.
Continuous process	Worse	Worse	Better is 19 vs. 33 percent; Worse not affected.
Internal Communication	Worse	Better	Better is 31 vs. 22 percent; Worse not affected.
External Communication	Worse	Better	Better is 39 vs. 19 percent; Worse not affected.
Training required	Equal or Worse	Equal or Worse	Equal or Worse is 83 vs. 67 percent.
Cyclical demand	Better	Better	Better is 31 vs. 22 percent; Worse is 6 vs. 17 percent.
Non-standard size of job	Better	None	Better, Worse not affected.
Extended hours	Better	Mixed	Better is 36 vs. 21 percent; but Worse is 21 vs. 8 percent.
Complex scheduling	Either	Either	Better is 30 vs. 19 percent; Worse is 22 vs. 0 percent.
Rapid change	Either	Either	Better is 39 vs. 17 percent; Worse is 15 vs. 12 percent.
<u>Turnover</u>			
Stress	Better	Better	Better is 24 vs. 18 percent; Worse not affected.
Teamwork	Better	Mixed	Better is 13 vs. 29 percent; but Worse is 35 vs. 43 percent.
Training required	Equal or Worse	Mixed	Equal is 61 vs. 28 percent; but Worse is 28 vs. 43 percent.
<u>Absenteeism</u>			
Stress	Better	Better	Better is 53 vs. 36 percent; Worse is 12 vs. 32 percent.
Teamwork	Better	Better	Better is 52 vs. 29 percent; Worse is 13 vs. 36 percent.
<u>Promotability, Competence, Responsibility</u>			
Teamwork	Better	Better	Better is 18 vs. 0 percent; Worse is not affected.
Image is important	Better	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 15 vs. 32 percent.
Training required	Equal or Worse	Better	Better is 17 vs. 5 percent; Worse is 22 vs. 30 percent.
Special projects	Better	Better	Better is 19 vs. 0 percent; Worse is 24 vs. 31 percent.
Discrete tasks	None	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 19 vs. 50 percent.
Supervisory support	None	Better	Better is 18 vs. 0 percent; Worse is 18 vs. 38 percent.
Continuous process	None	Worse	Better is 5 vs. 18 percent; Worse is 38 vs. 12 percent.
Rapid change	None	Better	Better is 31 vs. 0 percent; Worse is 15 vs. 35 percent.
<u>Loyalty</u>			
Teamwork	Better	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 35 vs. 79 percent.
Internal Communication	Better	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 43 vs. 52 percent.
Training required	Equal or Worse	None	Better not affected; Worse not affected.
Discrete tasks	None	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 43 vs. 70 percent.
Stress	None	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 35 vs. 59 percent.
Cyclical demand	None	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 31 vs. 61 percent.
Non-standard size of job	None	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 63 vs. 33 percent.
<u>Co-Worker Relationships</u>			
Teamwork	Better	None	Better not affected; Worse not affected.
Internal Communication	Better	None	Better not affected; Worse not affected.

Notes: Some job technologies are not analyzed due to few users to which they apply (Supervisory or Policy Making Responsibility and Uncertainty) or do not apply (Repetitive Tasks). The data source is 39 work unit supervisors in user companies. Differences are suggestive only and not statistically significant.

Loyalty of part time workers is also favored by teamwork in jobs, and by extensive internal communications requirements. Each of these technologies increases interaction, provides more information, and may reduce alienation. No work technology yields any measurable effect on the co-worker relationships of part time compared to full time workers.

Effects on Personnel Administration

The presence of some work technologies may worsen some personnel administration experiences for part time employment, particularly availability, recruiting, and training.

Availability and Promotion. Some kinds of jobs may make the availability and recruiting of part time workers more difficult. They are stressful jobs and jobs requiring a high level of supervisory support. Since these jobs would normally occur at higher occupational levels, this may indicate relatively less abundance of part time employees at those levels and thus that there is a supply-side constraint. Recruiting may also be more difficult when the work unit has complex scheduling, perhaps because applicants' personal schedules must be meshed with production schedules.

Although jobs requiring training might be expected to provide employment incentives, no recruiting advantage is noted; however, availability is increased. Similarly, extended hours of operation might be predicted to favor the recruiting of part time people compared to full time people since many of them are students or housewives who may be more amenable to evening or weekend hours. However, this effect is not observed. On the other hand, cyclical demand is associated with worse recruiting experiences.

Training. Training efforts or costs for part time workers may be worse when their jobs require training, since more training is then provided (if there are more employees), and since the training investment is recovered less quickly for part time workers. Work unit technologies which are likely to call forth extra training and thus be associated with higher training costs are teamwork (where working together necessitates some training), stress (associated with high level jobs), problem-solving (where techniques must be learned), and rapid change (where new production processes require frequent retraining). Overall, these results suggest that training costs are high for part time employment in some jobs and work settings but not in others.

Recordkeeping. Only one work technology--rapid change in production processes, personnel, or organizational structure--affects recordkeeping. Such changes might require new records or recordkeeping systems to be instituted. This works to the disadvantage of part time employment if manual or unusual records are kept for those workers.

Wage Costs and Fringe Benefits. Wage costs, as expected, are not affected by any work technology. Larger fringe benefit savings may be associated (perhaps indirectly) with the absence of training requirements. Perhaps it is lower level jobs which are both less likely to require training and less likely to receive fringe benefits. The presence of complex scheduling is associated with more costly fringe benefit experiences, for reasons which are unclear (see Chart 7).

Chart 7. Effects of Job and Work Unit Technology on Personnel Administration Experiences with Part Time Employment

Experience and Technology	Direction of Effect		Quantitative Effect: Frequency of Better and Worse Experiences When Technology is Present vs. Absent
	Predicted	Actual	
<u>Availability</u>			
Training required	Better	Better	Better is 33 vs. 15 percent; Worse not affected.
Extended hours	Better	Worse	Better is 18 vs. 26 percent; Worse is 46 vs. 30 percent.
Stress	None	Worse	Better is 6 vs. 38 percent; Worse is 53 vs. 19 percent.
Supervisory support	None	Worse	Better is 14 vs. 38 percent; Worse is 41 vs. 25 percent.
<u>Recruiting</u>			
Training required	Better	None	Better is not affected; Worse not affected.
Extended hours	Better	None	Better not affected; Worse not affected.
Complex scheduling	Worse	Worse	Better is 14 vs. 21 percent; Worse is 38 vs. 14 percent.
Stress	None	Worse	Better is 7 vs. 25 percent; Worse is 47 vs. 15 percent.
Supervisory support	None	Worse	Better is 5 vs. 36 percent; Worse is 33 vs. 21 percent.
Cyclical demand	None	Worse	Better is 0 vs. 30 percent; Worse is 40 vs. 20 percent.
<u>Training</u>			
Training required	Worse	Worse	Better is 17 vs. 24 percent; Worse is 28 vs. 23 percent.
Teamwork	Worse	Worse	Better is 13 vs. 36 percent; Worse is 30 vs. 21 percent.
Stress	Worse	Worse	Better is 0 vs. 36 percent; Worse is 47 vs. 9 percent.
Problem-solving	Worse	Worse	Better is 18 vs. 24 percent; Worse is 32 vs. 18 percent.
Rapid change	Worse	Worse	Better is 13 vs. 25 percent; Worse is 33 vs. 21 percent.
Special projects	None	Better	Better is 29 vs. 12 percent; Worse is 19 vs. 35 percent.
<u>Record Keeping</u>			
Rapid change	Worse	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 46 vs. 21 percent.
<u>Wages</u>			
Training required	Equal or Worse		Better not affected; Worse not affected.
<u>Fringe Benefits</u>			
Training required	None	Worse	Better is 50 vs. 80 percent; Worse is 13 vs. 5 percent.
Complex scheduling	None	Worse	Better is 52 vs. 87 percent; Worse is 14 vs. 0 percent.

Notes: See Chart 6.

Effects on Work Management

Several work technologies may affect employers' supervision, overtime, and equipment and facilities experiences with part time employment.

Supervision. Supervision experiences with part time employment may be made worse by jobs which require extensive communication and which are problem solving jobs, and in work units which have complex scheduling and special projects. All of these work technologies are likely to require additional supervisory attention in order to facilitate work flow and to assist workers

to do their jobs. Although discrete tasks in part time jobs might be expected to ease supervision since such jobs are more self-contained, this result is not observed. Cyclical demand, however, may reduce the incidence of unfavorable supervision experiences with part time employment.

Overtime. Two work unit technologies--cyclical demand and extended hours --may enable greater overtime savings for part time employment because in each case part time employment is an alternative to scheduling overtime for full time workers. A non-standard size of work load was not associated with overtime savings, perhaps because a smaller rather than larger size of work load was the rule in this sample.

Equipment and Facilities. The ability to manage equipment and facilities may be improved by the use of part time employment when there is complex scheduling or extended hours. Existing facilities may be more efficiently utilized or used to greater capacity in these cases. But no such effect is reported for cyclical demand. Teamwork, on the other hand, may aggravate equipment problems, perhaps because several people working together may require additional facilities (see Chart 8).

Chart 8. Effects of Job and Work Unit Technology on Work Management Experiences with Part Time Employment

Experience and Technology	Direction of Predicted	Effect Actual	Quantitative Effect: Frequency of Better and Worse Experiences When Technology is Present vs. Absent
<u>Supervision</u>			
Supervisory support	Worse	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 50 vs. 47 percent.
Internal communication	Worse	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 63 vs. 39 percent.
External communication	Worse	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 62 vs. 42 percent.
Problem solving	Worse	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 64 vs. 29 percent.
Complex scheduling	Worse	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 57 vs. 38 percent.
Special projects	Worse	Worse	Better not affected; Worse is 57 vs. 41 percent.
Discrete tasks	Better	None	Better not affected; Worse not affected.
Cyclical demand	None	Better	Better not affected; Worse is 31 vs. 61 percent.
<u>Overtime</u>			
Cyclical demand	Better	Better	Better is 80 vs. 61 percent; Worse not affected.
Extended hours	Better	Better	Better is 91 vs. 59 percent; Worse not affected.
Non-standard size of job	Better	Worse	Better is 56 vs. 75 percent; Worse not affected.
<u>Equipment and Facilities</u>			
Cyclical demand	Better	None	Better not affected; Worse not affected.
Complex scheduling	Better	Better	Better is 23 vs. 13 percent; Worse is 18 vs. 25 percent.
Extended hours	Better	Better	Better is 30 vs. 14 percent; Worse is 10 vs. 25 percent.
Teamwork	Worse	Worse	Better is 14 vs. 29 percent; Worse is 27 vs. 7 percent.

Notes: See Chart 6.

D. External Forces and Internal Pressures

Negative labor union attitudes prevent many employers from using part time workers.

A variety of forces outside the firm may affect decisions to use part time employment, and there may be internally generated pressures which are felt as well. However, employers who use part time workers acknowledge only two such forces to be of any consequence. About half the users are influenced by individual managers' attitudes toward part time employment, and by susceptibility to macro-economic fluctuations, or swings in the business cycle. Neither equal employment opportunity pressure nor individual workers' attitudes nor community pressure are present or felt as impinging employment policy in more than a third of the cases at most. Most users of part time workers do not have labor unions in work units which employ part time workers, so union influence is small. However, labor union influence is among the most frequently reported external influences among non-users; thus labor unions are perceived to be a barrier to part time employment, since union influence is almost always reported to be negative (see Table 28).

Table 28. External Influences and Internal Pressures Affecting Users and Non-Users of Part Time Employment (percent of all responses)

Item	Applicable According to			
	Users		Non-Users	
	Work Unit Supervisors	Employment Experts	Work Unit Supervisors	Employment Experts
Managers' attitudes toward part time employment	54	46	37	42
Macroeconomic fluctuations	50	66	58	54
Equal employment opportunity pressure	34	37	40	43
Workers' attitudes toward part time employment	24	36	11	7
Labor union attitude*	19	18	50	50
Community pressure on employment policy	17	26	17	25

Source: Work unit supervisors and employment experts in 39 companies

* = statistically significant difference between users and non-users at $\alpha < .03$ level.

In many unionized firms, the use of part time employment would be economically costly since collective bargaining agreements usually require payment of full time wages even when an employee is scheduled for less than normal hours. Trade unionists claim this provision is necessary to protect workers from being called in for only a few hours of work per day.

In addition, some unions disapprove of part time employment on the grounds that it takes jobs away from people who need full time employment.⁴ Union leaders fear that management, given the opportunity, would use part time labor in place of full time labor because it is cheaper. Since the Equal Pay Act does not now cover part time workers, it is legal to pay lower wages to part time employees than to full time employees who perform identical work. Similarly there is no Federal requirement that part time employees receive fringe benefits.

As a result, few part time workers are union represented. When they are, they usually receive higher wages and better fringe benefits than do their non-union counterparts. For example, part time clerks represented by the Retail Clerks International Association enjoy a wage-benefit package which compares favorably with that received by full time members.⁵ A few Communications Workers of America (CMA) members work as part time telephone operators. However, this is an exception made in response to a particular demand for evening telephone service in college communities. Recently part time recreation workers in Torrance, California, formed their own American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees Local 495 and subsequently won free uniforms, a grievance procedure, and a small raise.⁶

An innovative step was taken by the Retail Clerks in 1976 when it adopted an international policy of decelerating employment for people near retirement age. Thus locals who choose to may bargain for shorter hours for members who are approaching mandatory retirement age. The objective is to accustom the employee both to a reduced work load, and to an income which can be reduced gradually to the level of anticipated pension plus Social Security benefits. The greatest obstacle is that pension benefits are usually based on an employee's earnings at time of retirement. Workers who voluntarily reduce the number of hours they work consequently suffer a loss in pension benefits.⁷

⁴Ronald Wackett, Assistant Director - Fringe Benefits, Retail Clerks International Association. Remarks at a National Conference on Alternative Work Schedules, Chicago, April 21-22, 1977.

⁵Patsy L. Fryman, Assistant to the President, Communications Workers of America. Remarks at a National Conference on Alternative Work Schedules, Chicago, April 21-22, 1977.

⁶Roxanne Arnold, "Part-timers Form Union," The Daily Breeze, Torrance, Calif., March 6, 1977, p. A12.

⁷Ronald Wackett. Remarks.

E. Summary of Findings

Most job and work unit technologies are not compelling in their effects on the experiences of employers with part-time workers. However, there are two work technologies which clearly favor the use of part time employment: discrete job tasks and cyclical demand for the work unit's output. Both these technologies are present in three-quarters of all the part time jobs studied, both are present substantially less often in occupationally similar full time jobs in the same work units, and both have predominantly positive effects on employers' experiences with part time workers, including productivity.

In addition, a non-standard size of work load is found significantly more often in part time than in full time employment, but that frequency is still less than half, and there are no improvements in experiences under this technology. One work technology which is often claimed to be especially suitable for part time employment--repetitive tasks--is usually found in the part time jobs studied, but is also found with equal frequency in comparable full time jobs, and so it does not distinguish between the two (no tests of its effect on experiences could be made).

Two work technologies constrain the use of part time employment: continuous process operations and supervisory responsibility. Although continuous process operations are present in just over half the part time jobs studied, it is found significantly less often than in otherwise comparable full time jobs and may have negative effects on productivity. Supervisory responsibilities are seldom found in the part time jobs studied, but were present in over half the otherwise comparable full time jobs (no tests of its effects on employers' experiences could be made).

Other work technologies previously thought unsuited to part time employment apparently do not constrain its use in fact. Teamwork requirements are present in three-quarters of all part time jobs studied and have both some positive and negative effects on employers' experiences. Heavy supervisory support and problem solving are also frequently required, although each has some negative effects on experiences. Neither training requirements nor extensive communication requirements are constraints since they are both present nearly half the time, about as often as in comparable full time jobs, and have positive as well as negative effects on employers' experiences.

On the other hand, some work unit technologies previously thought especially suited to part time employment may not be so well suited in fact. High stress is present with only little more frequency in part time than in full time jobs, and produces both negative and positive effects on experiences. Extended hours of operation frequently did not characterize the work units studied, and was associated with some negative as well as positive effects on experiences. However, this result may be peculiar to the industries included in this study. Rapid change in production processes, personnel, or organizational structure is not usually a factor--it is infrequently found in any work unit, whether using part time workers or not, and has mixed effects on experiences.

Chart 9. Summary of Employers' Experiences Which Are Affected by Key Job and Work Unit Technologies

Work Technology	Effect on Experiences		
	Better	Worse	Mixed
Discrete tasks	Productivity Promotability Loyalty		
Teamwork	Absenteeism Promotability Loyalty	Productivity Training Equipment	Turnover
Supervisory support	Promotability	Availability Recruiting Supervision	
Continuous process		Productivity Promotability	
Training required	Promotability Availability	Training Fringe Benefits	Productivity Turnover Wages
Stress	Productivity Turnover Absenteeism Loyalty	Availability Recruiting Training	
Internal communication	Productivity Loyalty	Supervision	
External communication	Productivity	Supervision	
Cyclical demand	Productivity Loyalty Supervision Overtime	Recruiting	
Problem-solving		Supervision Training	
Complex scheduling	Equipment	Recruiting Fringe Benefits Supervision	Productivity
Special projects	Promotability Training	Supervision	
Non-standard size of job		Loyalty Overtime	
Extended hours	Overtime Equipment	Availability	Productivity
Rapid change	Promotability	Training Record keeping	Productivity

Source: Charts 2, 3, and 4.

71

CHAPTER V. ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The third major hypothesis for explaining the use or non-use of permanent part time employment is that a combination non-economic behavioral characteristics, collectively called organizational climate, affects the part time employment decision. This hypothesis is new, since it is not mentioned in previous published work, but instead arises from in-depth interviews with employment agencies, researchers, and other experts in the field.

The concept of organizational climate as used in this study is quite new and requires brief explanation. It has long been recognized that environment has a powerful influence on people's lives. This influence plays a central role in all the major theories of human behavior. Much of the research on organizational behavior of the last fifty years has dealt with relationships between the environment in organizations and behavior. Most of this work, however, has studied organizational microvariables, or the parts of the organization.

In recent years there has been interest in a more molar view of organizational environments. The thesis is that single variables and even sets of variables are too narrow to explain behavior in organizations and that somehow the whole is more than and different from the sum of its parts. This molar concept is termed "organizational climate." According to a leader in the field it is "a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that is experienced by its members, influences their behavior, and can be described in terms of attributes of the organization."¹ It is "a molar synthetic concept" which is "the meaning of an enduring situational configuration."² Note that organizational climate has behavioral consequences: "it acts upon attitudes, expectations and states of arousal which are determinants of behavior."³ In this study, attitudes of managers, both those attitudes toward workers which are part of management style, and other social attitudes, are treated under the rubric of organizational climate.

A. Hypotheses

The overall hypothesis is that employers who use permanent part time employment will have an organizational climate and management style which is more "human relations" oriented and less "classical" than employers who do not use part time employment, and that their social attitudes will be more change-oriented and less traditional than those of non-users.

¹Tagiuri (1968), p. 25.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

This typology corresponds roughly to that of Langdale (1974), who concluded that a molar concept of organizational climate does exist empirically and that it can be described along a continuum from climates which have a "classical" orientation to those which have a "human relations" orientation. Such a climate continuum, according to Langdale, embraces alternate typologies: mechanistic vs. organic (Woodward et al); authoritarian vs. participation-group (Likert); Theory X vs. Theory Y (McGregor); habit vs. problem solving (Bennis); bureaucratic vs. human relations (Litwak); closed system vs. open system (Barnes); and Structure I vs. Structure IV (Argyris). It also corresponds to the major schools of management theory: the classical theories (Taylor, Gulick, Urwick, and Fayol); the structural school (Wiker, Udy, Woodward, and Lawrence and Lorsch); and the human relations theorists (Mayo, Homans, Rothlisberger and Dixon, Whyte, Likert, Schein, Letwin, and Lewin and Sayles).

Dimensions of Organizational Climate

Although a molar organizational climate may exist in an enterprise, that climate will also be manifested or felt in several more specific ways--it will have several dimensions. These dimensions need to be described and measured separately in order to enrich and give content to the concept of organizational climate. Based on a small number of in-depth interviews with experts in the field, the following dimensions are proposed as having primary relevance to the part time employment decision:

1. Structure: Mechanistic vs. organic. The nature and extent of formal organizational structure including hierarchy, bureaucracy, systemization, and internal flexibility.
2. Management style: Employee-centered vs. production-centered. Managers' philosophy, values, and practices.
3. Orientation: Humanistic vs. materialistic. Focus of the organization on people and services vs. efficiency and products.
4. Tradition: Contemporary vs. traditional values. The degree to which the organization holds to stability and traditional values vs. change, innovation, and more contemporary values.
5. Managers' attitudes. Positive vs. negative. The overall view of managers toward part time workers and part time employment.

Each of these dimensions of organizational climate has a classical management extreme and a human relations extreme. Each dimension may be related to the others, but each taps into a different aspect of the organization's molar climate.

Specific Hypotheses

Within each of these dimensions of organizational climate, early impressions gained from experts led to specific hypotheses about the association of organizational climate with the use of part-time employment.

Structure. Part time employment may be easier to implement in organizations which are relatively loosely structured and in which there is less bureaucracy and hierarchy and more flexibility. In these organizations it may be easier for managers to respond to work needs and employees' needs by using part time employment, especially if it is new to the firm. On the other hand, a lack of formal channels of communications and standard policies, procedures, and information systems may inhibit the flow of information about favorable part time experiences and contribute to the isolation and lack of institutionalization of part time employment.

Management Style. Managers who are employee-centered and concerned about workers, and who supervise participatively rather than in close punitive ways may be more likely to adopt part time employment. Such managers tend to be more involved with employee problems, and more likely to use part time scheduling to provide for employee needs within production-based constraints. They may also be less likely to see difficulties with the supervision of part time workers and more likely to be comfortable with a more fluid and flexible part time system.

Orientation. A number of observers expressed beliefs that enterprises with part time employment have a more humanistic orientation than those without it; i.e., that companies which emphasize good employee relations, pleasant working conditions, generous fringe benefits, customer service, safety, and quality may also tend to use more part time scheduling in order to accommodate both worker and customer needs. Companies which emphasize output, costs, and efficiency may be less receptive to part time employment in general, and less receptive to employee requests for it in particular. However, a counterargument (expressed especially by labor union representatives) is that less humanistic, more exploitive companies tend to use part time employment as a way of keeping everybody hungry and getting more work without paying overtime and some fringe benefits.

Tradition. For some companies part time employment is a radical alteration in a long-established 9 to 5 work day. In addition, part time employment is often seen as part of a larger cultural shift towards new life styles emphasizing leisure time and worker autonomy instead of discipline and the work ethic. Since for many, part time employment is associated with change, it may be most likely to occur in companies where the climate is less traditional and stability-oriented and more receptive to innovation, change, and contemporary values. However, there is still an opposite prediction. If part time workers are less well socialized into the firm than full time workers (because they spend less time in the firm or have other interests), then rapidly changing and unstable firms may avoid them because they are yet another source of uncertainty.⁴

Managers' Attitudes. It is often suggested that a potential non-economic influence on part time employment decisions is employers' attitudes that part time workers are basically different from full time workers in their motivation and commitment. They may be seen as not belonging to the organization--not permanent if they are part time, and not part time if they are permanent. They may be seen as having divided loyalties, as being unpredictable, and as not

⁴We are indebted to Arnold Herzog for this point.

well integrated into the organization. Employers may believe they do not need to work and are thus second rate corporate citizens rather than regular workers.

The questions for this study are whether these attitudes exist among employers, and whether they are more negative for employers who do not use part time employment than for those who do.

B. Measures of Organizational Climate

Two major vehicles were used to measure organizational climate and managers' values. The first was a series of open-ended questions asked in a personal interview which elicited the respondent's feeling about the atmosphere or environment in which he or she worked. This provided a subjective view of the structure, style, self-image, orientation, and values of the enterprise. These responses, given in the respondent's own words, were then coded by the interviewer as dichotomous descriptions of organizational climate along each of the dimensions identified, if a clear choice could be made. Responses to other questions (such as those which asked employers why people work part time, why certain jobs are not suitable for part time employment, and what their experiences or expectations about part time workers were) all assisted the codification of subjective organizational climate. A description of the climate dichotomies follows.

- Structure - Organic: some structure and control but relatively few rules or procedures, relatively little hierarchy or bureaucracy; relatively informal, relaxed, and fluid systems; emphasis on communication and flexibility.
Mechanistic: relatively large number of rules and procedures; bureaucratic, structured, formal; emphasis on systems and control.
- Management Style - Employee centered: sensitive to individual employee needs as well as company needs; identify with employees and see them as basically capable and trustworthy; manager's job is to help arrange things so employees are able to perform, i.e., organize, facilitate, support.
Production centered: main emphasis on needs of production and company; identify mainly with company, management; employees seen as basically not wanting to work and needing control; manager's job is direction, control.
- Orientation - Humanistic: people oriented, emphasis on services, good employee relations, quality, helping people (customers, clients)
Materialistic: product oriented, emphasis on profits, costs, output, efficiency, bottom line, competitiveness, sales, making money.
- Tradition - Change oriented: dynamic, progressive, modern; emphasis on being up to date, innovative, fast moving; leaders; responsive to external changes.
Tradition oriented: traditional, conservative, stable, solid, steady; emphasis on loyalty, tenure, age, history, established reputation (family atmosphere sometimes).

Attitudes - Positive: see part timers as valued members of (regular) work force; as good and productive, committed, mature, hard working, invested in career or company and/or members of positively viewed groups.
Negative: see part timers as marginal, temporary, not as invested in career or company, less predictable and controllable and/or members of pejoratively viewed groups.

The second measuring device was basically Langdale's climate and contingency instrument contained in a mail questionnaire. This instrument is used to provide a classical management to human relations continuum. It contains influence, control, structure, specialization, competitiveness, and communication questions as well as questions designed to explore respondents' values. Responses to each question are made on a 7- or 8-point Likert Scale: All questions have a classical management extreme (score = 1) and a human relations extreme (score = 7 or 8) and all are intended to be additive. This instrument was used to obtain an aggregate reading on climate and its main dimensions. It was also used to provide objective verification of the subjectively evaluated open-ended questions on the same issues in the personal interview. (See Appendix I for a list of the questions asked, and see Chapter II and Langdale (1974) for more details about the instrument).

C. Results: Organizational Climate and Managers' Attitudes
Among Users and Non-Users of Part Time Employment

In this section the results of the empirical analysis of organizational climate and managers' attitudes are presented. The objectives are to describe the climate and attitudes of users of part time employment, and to discern differences between users and non-users.

Molar Organizational Climate

Employers who use part time employment are not different from non-users in their overall organizational climate.

The mean score on the organizational climate questions on the Langdale instrument was near the midpoint of the scales for both users (mean score = 4.1) and non-users (mean score = 4.2). The responses fell into a very narrow range at the center of the scales (standard deviation = .46 and .43, respectively).

This result corresponds to Langdale's own experience that business firms in general occupy a fairly narrow range in the center of these scales. He obtained dispersion by stratified sampling to include supposedly strongly classical (e.g., army unit) and strongly human relations (e.g., private school) organizations. This sampling criterion is not appropriate for this research, and therefore the scales do not distinguish users from non-users. However, when the scales are grouped into smaller and more homogeneous groups reflecting specific dimensions of climate, some significant differences between users and non-users do emerge.

Tradition and Change

Change-oriented managers with contemporary values encourage the use of part time employment, even in stable, conservative and traditional organizations.

Work unit supervisors in user companies are more receptive to change, less conservative, and less supportive of traditional values (law, democracy, government, and the family) than non-user supervisors. They are less likely to punish harshly those who reject traditional values. The Protestant ethic and a sense of strict discipline also seem to be less strong among user supervisors than non-users. They are less apt to see people as "wasting time with sentimentality and idle thinking and not dealing with their problems and getting down to work."

These results are based on the "tradition" scales of the organizational climate instrument. Taken as a group, they yielded a mean scale score of 3.34 for work unit supervisors in user companies and a mean score of 2.91 for their non-user counterparts. (See Table 29 for these results and Appendix II, questions 33-40, for the scales which comprise the tradition dimension.)

In contrast, there is only a small and not significant difference between user and non-user organizations on this climate dimension. Slightly more than half the users and slightly fewer than half the non-users are change-oriented as opposed to stability oriented (based on the open-ended questions subjectively coded as a tradition vs. change dichotomy). This finding is supported by the objective responses of work unit supervisors to the question (from the mail questionnaire) which asked "whether or not most people in your unit are basically conservative, believe strongly in tradition, and are generally reluctant to change." Here also users score higher but not significantly so. Thus the use of part time employment is apparently not the exclusive domain of dynamic, progressive, innovative industry leaders.

Structure, Style, and Orientation

Employers who use part time employment have a more human relations climate in terms of organizational structure, management style and orientation than non-users. There is a more classical climate among non-users.

The strongest relationships between any major organizational climate variable and the usage of part time employment occurred for the structure dimension. Companies who use part time employment are more likely to have organic organization structures (69 percent) than are non-users (35 percent). This result is based on supervisors' responses to open-ended questions.

Users of part time employment are also somewhat more likely than non-users to have a management style which is employee-centered rather than production-centered--77 percent of users and 56 percent of non-users are judged employee-centered based on supervisors' open-ended responses. Similarly users are somewhat more humanistic in their orientation than materialistic. It should be noted, however, for both the management style and orientation dimensions, that the majority of firms (including non-users) fall in the human relations sphere and not the classical management sphere. This may reflect the human relations

Table 29. Tradition vs. Change Dimension of Organizational Climate for Users and Non-Users of Part Time Employment

(Higher scores indicate more change and a less traditional climate)

Item	User	Non-User
<u>For Work Unit Supervisor</u>		
Aggregate tradition dimension of organizational climate (Mean score of 8 scales)	3.34	2.91
Some component questions:		
"I believe in traditional values (support the law, democracy, government, the family) and I am against radicals and communism." (Score)	2.43	1.93
"I believe that those who break the law and go against traditional values should be harshly punished." (Score)	1.51	.99
"There are too many people wasting time with sentimentality and idle thinking and not enough people dealing with their problems directly and getting down to work." (Score)	3.40	2.60
<u>For Work Unit</u>		
Work unit is change-oriented (percent)	53	40
"Most people in this work unit are basically conservative, believe strongly in tradition, and are reluctant to change." (Score)	3.70	3.40

Notes: The source is responses to the Langdale organizational climate instrument by mail questionnaire from work unit supervisors in 30 user and 15 non-user companies (except for the last item which is obtained from open-ended responses from a personal interview where $n = 39$ and 29 respectively).

Numbers refer to scales where strongly agree = 1 and strongly disagree = 7 and whose midpoints = 3.5.

Differences between users and non-users are not statistically significant for the work unit but are significant at $\alpha < .05$ for the work unit supervisor.

bias in management theory and the culture as a whole, as well as companies' tendencies to have interviewers talk to their most "people oriented" and most cooperative supervisors.

A more human relations climate is also found among users of part time employment more often than among non-users based on the objective scales of the mail questionnaire. An aggregate of 10 scales all relating especially to organizational structure and management style support the hypothesis that users are significantly more employee-centered, less controlling, less structured, and less formal than non-users. These questions indicate that users are more inclined to let employees join in and influence management decisions and have a say in who gets rewards and punishments. User supervisors also spend less time assigning work and making up schedules, and provide more time for employees to talk about non-job-related matters. Formal channels of communication and influence are less important and users have fewer formal sources of information such as forms, counting devices, TV monitors, and surveys. In general, management exerts less control over the work methods, behavior, and goals of lower level employees among users than non-users (see Table 30 for these results and Appendix II, questions 2, 3, 5, 8, 9, 16, 18, and 42 for the scales which comprise the structure and style dimensions of organizational climate).

Managers' Attitudes

Many managers have a negative view about permanent part time employment, but it is based on objective technological and (to a lesser degree) economic considerations, and not on prejudice either for or against the personal characteristics of part time workers (such as their sex or life style).

Subjective analysis of employers' remarks about part time employment in the personal interview indicates that most managers have definitive views on part time employment. What those views are depends on usage. Three-quarters of user supervisors were favorably inclined toward part time workers; three-quarters of non-users had negative feelings overall (see Table 31).

However, the difference between users and non-users in their attitudes toward part time employment does not reflect bias against the character or motives of part time people. For example, an exploration of employers' perceptions of why people work part time showed no significant difference between users and non-users. Only about 30 percent of each group indicated any personal reasons that appeared to them as less than entirely valid economic or scheduling requirements on the part of part time workers.

Other evidence previously reported in this study also indicates there is little subjective bias against part time workers. Although non-users are more inclined than users to believe that part time employment is unsuited to some jobs (73 percent vs. 41 percent), the kinds of jobs and reasons given are similar and related to work technology, not to personal characteristics of part time workers. Employers do not believe that part time workers are less responsible or unable to handle important jobs.

Table 30. Structure, Style, and Orientation Dimensions of Organizational Climate for Users and Non-users of Part Time Employment

(Higher scores indicate a more human relations and a less classical management climate)

Item	User	Non-User
A. Subjectively rated dichotomies from open-ended questions		
Organizational structure is organic (percent)	69	35
Management philosophy is employee-centered (percent)	77	56
Orientation is humanistic (percent)	79	58
B. Objective scales from mail questionnaire		
Aggregate structure-style dimension of organizational climate (Mean score of 10 scales)	3.90	3.55
Some component questions:		
How often supervisors allow employees to join in and influence their decisions (Score)	4.43	3.87
How much time supervisors spend assigning work, making up schedules, setting work goals, and watching employees work (Score)	3.10	2.67
Whether supervisors or employees determine rewards, penalties (Score)	2.66	2.40
How often employees can talk about things other than the jobs they are doing (Score)	5.37	5.07
Use of formal channels of communications (memos, not going over boss's head) (Score)	3.53	3.13
Use of formal channels of influence (Score)	3.87	3.53
Use of extra sources of information (counters, TV monitors, surveys) (Score)	5.47	5.07
Control that supervisors and top management have over work methods, behavior, and goals of employees) (Score)	3.60	2.93
Number of forms which circulate (median number selected from a list of 29)	14	18

Notes: Sample size is $n = 39$ for users and $n = 29$ for non-users for Panel A, and 30 for users and 15 for non-users for Panel B.

Scales have scores ranging from 1 (most classical) to 8 (most human relations oriented); midpoint is 4.5.

The difference between users and non-users on the aggregate Structure-Style dimension is statistically significant at $\alpha < .15$. Individual questions show less significance.

In addition, the explanations for unfavorable economic outcomes for part time workers are not generally cast in terms of undesirable personal characteristics. For productivity, turnover, and absenteeism, when there were unfavorable outcomes, there were few pejorative explanations (e.g., part time workers are uncommitted or have other interests); there were just as many positive personal explanations (they are stable, mature, responsible - see Chapter III). Attitudes of supervisors toward the loyalty of part time workers and their ability to relate to co-workers are not significantly different among users than among non-users. Thus there is no evidence that the use of part time employment is constrained in a major way by negative attitudes toward them.

Table 31. Supervisors' Attitudes Toward Part Time Employees

Attitude	User	Non-User
	(percent of responses)	
Positive	76	26
Negative	24	74

Source: Subjectively rated dichotomies from open-ended questions.

Notes: Sample size is $n=39$ for users and $n=29$ for non-users.

The difference between users and non-users is statistically significant at $\alpha < .01$.

Qualifications and Ambiguities

The foregoing results must remain somewhat provisional and tentative because further analysis of organizational climate and management attitudes suggests some qualifying complexities.

Location of Control. Although employers who use part time employment have a more informal organizational climate and a more employee-centered management style than non-users, supervision and control which is exercised may

occur at a higher level in the organization. For example, oversight of employees' performance (and the use of such information) may occur at higher supervisory levels. The mean scale score for users in question 26 (whether top management, middle level supervisors, or lower level employees watch out for quantity and quality of employees' work) is 4.28 for users and 4.73 for non-users, with $\alpha < .10$. For question 28 (at which level this information is used) the mean scale score is 3.40 for users and 3.87 for non-users with $\alpha < .25$. The lower scores for users indicate supervision at a higher level. Since jobs in user companies are more specialized than in non-user companies (mean scale score is 4.90 for users and 5.80 for non-users, with $\alpha < .10$, and where lower scores indicate more specialization), there may be more vertical communication to higher levels for purposes of evaluating job performance.

Unionization. While supervisors in user companies appear to be less formal, less controlling of their workers, and more participative than supervisors in non-user companies (see Table 30), it is simultaneously true that workers themselves in user companies do not in return have more control over their supervisors and their work methods (who is to do what work and how to do it) than workers in non-user companies. That is, there is both less control downward from supervisors to workers and less control upward from workers to supervisors in user as opposed to non-user companies--there is less total quantity of control in the enterprise.

The reason for this phenomenon appears to be the much greater frequency of labor unions among non-users than among users. In the firms studied, nearly half the non-user work units were unionized, but none of the users had unions in the work units where there were part time workers. Thus lower level workers in non-user companies have some measure of control over their supervisors and over their work methods because of their union representation, which user companies' workers lack. For example, the mean scale on question 19 (the amount of control that lower level employees have over the work methods and behavior of their supervisors, such as through labor unions and proper channels) is 2.93 for users and 3.80 for non-users, with $\alpha < .01$, and where higher scores indicate more control. (See also question 22, for which mean scale scores are 3.03 for users and 3.60 for non-users, with $\alpha < .15$, suggesting workers in non-user companies have more power over their co-workers than workers in user companies.) Thus the finding of a more human relations organizational climate among users of part time employment is sustained, and the relative lack of worker influence in an upward direction is explained by the disproportionate presence of labor unions among non-users.

Feedback. Although users tend to be less formal and controlling than non-users, the effect of this on the amount and/or direction of feedback appears to be insignificant. For example, the amount of communication workers give to their supervisors vs. the amount of communication supervisors give to workers (question 10) yields mean scale scores for users and for non-users which scarcely differ (3.43 vs. 3.53, respectively). There is a similar lack of difference between users and non-users in terms of the degree to which employees seek to influence and/or communicate either up or down the hierarchy (questions 24 and 31).

Openness and View of Human Nature. Contrary to expectations, supervisors in user companies are less open and sharing with lower level employees, and have a less optimistic view of human nature than supervisors in non-user companies. They are more likely to keep what they know to themselves and not answer all

questions that are unrelated to jobs (question 11, which has mean scale scores of 4.33 for users and 5.27 for non-users, with $\alpha < .10$). They are more likely to believe human nature is directed by self-interest in a hostile world (question 39, with mean scale scores of 3.37 and 4.27 for users and non-users, respectively, and $\alpha < .10$). These results appear inconsistent with the previous finding that users of part time employment have a more employee-centered management philosophy. However, it may be that supervisors who are less traditional than their organizations (and who are thus somewhat out of phase with their environments) feel some uncertainty and pressure and therefore act cautiously in the interpersonal aspects of their management.

D. Summary of Findings

Organizational climate has an effect on the use of part time employment. But it is not a strong or a universal effect. Managers who use part time employment are somewhat less traditional and more change-oriented than managers who do not use it. Their organizations are somewhat less formal and controlling in their structure, and somewhat more employee-centered and participative in their management style. But users of part time employment are not monolithically more human relations oriented nor are non-users thoroughly more classical in their organizational climate. Part time employment requires clear managerial inputs; it is not group-managed by autonomous work units. Employers exhibit clear positive or negative attitudes toward part time workers, but they are objectively based on work technology and worker scheduling considerations. Negative prejudice against part time workers is small and does not constrain the use of part time employment.

CHAPTER VI. CONCLUSIONS

Part time employment is surprisingly common, and it is growing. More than 20 percent of all people who work are employed part time. It is especially frequent among women, the young, and the old. Advocacy groups are pressing for more part time job opportunities, especially permanent part time jobs, claiming social benefits as well as advantages for employers. But employers themselves are little concerned; not much is known about their experiences.

The objectives of this exploratory study are to 1) learn why some employers use permanent part time employment and why others do not, 2) suggest what the benefits and costs of part time employment are, and 3) describe which work settings are well-suited to part time employment and which, if any, are not.

Original data were obtained from personal interviews and mail questionnaires from employment experts and work unit supervisors in 68 private sector corporations (39 users and 29 non-users of permanent part time employment), mainly in the manufacturing, finance and insurance industries. Occupations of workers studied were mainly clerical, operatives, and laborers. The findings may thus not be representative of all part time employment.

A. The Findings in Brief

Economic Benefits and Costs

The economic outcomes of permanent part time employment are not central to employers' decisions to use it or not to use it. Few employers mention direct benefits or costs as primary reasons for their decisions. Many non-users expect part time employment to have some economic advantages but do not use it, and some users report extra costs for part time employment but use it nevertheless. But in many cases, the economic outcomes for part time employment are about the same as those experienced with full time workers. Even when there are differences, they are often rated by employers as unimportant to their decision to use or not to use part time employment. This means that economic benefits are not strong incentives to use part time employment; nor are economic costs strong constraints against its use.

On balance, the economic benefits of part time employment do outweigh the economic costs. However, what is a benefit to one firm may be a cost to another, depending on other factors in the work situation. Thus it is difficult to generalize. Nevertheless, the most frequent economic benefits of part time employment as it is currently used are reduced overtime, higher productivity, reduced absenteeism, and lower wage and fringe benefit costs. The most frequent cost of part time employment is supervision. Additional record-keeping costs are also mentioned occasionally. Some experiences with part time employment are better as often as they are worse compared to full time employment. Examples of these are recruiting and turnover.

The expectations of employers who do not use part time workers are somewhat more negative than users' experiences, and they tend to be somewhat more important to their decisions. However, the only factors on which users and non-users registered strong disagreement were productivity and absenteeism. Non-users expect these to be important costs of part time employment, while users report them to be benefits. It is not clear whether these differing views are due to

non-users' misperceptions or to differences in work situations or labor market conditions which would indeed yield different outcomes if part time employment were used. Non-users also expect important higher costs of recruiting, training, and recordkeeping for part time workers.

Industry and Occupation. Although part time employment is more common in some industries than others, this does not appear to be caused by different economic outcomes in these industries. For example, the benefits and costs reported in the finance and insurance industries (which use many part time workers) were not different from those reported in the manufacturing industry (a low user of part time workers).

However, the benefits and costs of part time employment may be different in some occupations than others. Part time clerical jobs may be associated with lower turnover and absenteeism, less recordkeeping, and better equipment utilization, while part time production jobs may be associated with better worker loyalty, lower wage costs, and greater fringe benefit savings. Neither job category gives better economic outcomes overall.

Labor Supply. Good experiences with part time employment may sometimes result from an excess supply of people available for part time work rather than from any intrinsic advantage of part time scheduling. This is true for productivity, turnover, and absenteeism. If part time workers are abundant, they are motivated to protect their jobs by doing good work, and employers can be selective and choose only superbly qualified workers.

Labor-Unions. Part time employment is seldom found in unionized work units. This stems not so much from union policies against part time employment as it does from contract provisions designed to protect full time workers. For example, many collective bargaining agreements require a full day's pay if a worker is called in for any part of the day, or they require all fringe benefits to be paid to all workers. Either provision raises the cost of part time employment.

Employers' Perceptions of Part Time Workers

With few exceptions, employers (both users and non-users) do not have pejorative views about why people work part time. They believe in the seriousness of purpose of part time workers, acknowledging their need to schedule work around another major responsibility (such as school or children) and earn an income; they do not think in terms of part time people working just as a diversion, to avoid an honest day's work, or to earn pin money. Few managers refer to either positive characteristics of part time workers, such as maturity and stability, or to negative characteristics, such as lack of commitment. And contrary to popular beliefs, neither are important issues.

Yet many employers do see part time workers as different from full time employees. They are perceived to be outside normal career ladders and not interested in, or in some cases eligible for, advancement or promotion.

According to employers, the major life role which some part time workers have outside their job, such as being a housewife or a student, may affect only

a few work performance outcomes and are of little importance to employers. Housewives may have lower turnover and absenteeism and better loyalty than students, for example.

Work Technology

The nature of the employer's business strongly affects the usage of part time employment. The most common reason offered by employers for using part time workers is to fit the work force to the size of the work load. Almost all users have a special production scheduling problem which prompts the use of part time employment. Without this scheduling problem, part time employment seldom occurs. In addition, the nature of the job affects the usage of part time employment. Some job technologies favor it and some discourage it.

There are two work technologies which are clear incentives to use part time employment: discrete job tasks and cyclical demand for products or services. Both these work technologies are usually found where there is part time employment, but found significantly less often among otherwise similar full time jobs. Both may be associated with better economic outcomes such as increased productivity and reduced overtime, both of which are important to employers. In addition, a non-standard size of work load is found significantly more often when there is part time rather than full time employment, although it occurs in fewer than half the user work units.

There are also two work technologies which are clear constraints against the use of part time employment: continuous process operations and supervisory responsibility in jobs. These work technologies are found significantly less often in part time jobs than in comparable full time jobs. Productivity and other economic outcomes may be worse in continuous process part time jobs. (Therefore the net economic outcome of part time employment, while not large on the average, may be quite sizable for certain work technologies.) Nevertheless, continuous process operations do not exclude part time employment. Altogether, over half of all users had this work technology.

Some other work technologies are appropriate for part time employment but are not central to the explanation of its use. For example, routine and repetitive work characterizes most part time jobs, but is just as often found in comparable full time jobs.

Some work technologies for which part time employment has been thought unsuited are not constraints in fact. Jobs requiring teamwork, extensive supervisory support, or problem solving are done by part time workers about as often as full time workers, amounting to half to three-quarters of all the part time jobs studied.

Work technology explains why managers and supervisors are seldom employed on a part time basis. Their jobs require continuity and continuous availability, and they entail supervisory responsibility. Managerial jobs are usually filled by promotion from within, and extensive training is provided. On all these counts, employers deem part time employment to be less satisfactory than full time employment.

Organizational Climate

Organizational structure, management style, and managers' attitudes are secondary factors in explaining the use of part time employment. There are some differences between users and non-users in these dimensions of organizational climate. But there is no molar climate difference between them. That is, part time employment is not more likely among human relations climates than among classical management climates.

Employers who use part time workers have a relatively organic organizational structure which is more informal and less controlling than that of non-users; they are more employee-centered and participative; their work unit supervisors are more change-oriented and less traditional in their values; and they have clearly positive attitudes toward part time employment. Non-users are relatively more mechanistically structured and more production-centered, their supervisors are more traditional in values, and they have negative attitudes toward part time employment.

Contrary to some expectations, user companies as a whole are not more innovative and dynamic than non-users. They are more centralized, with supervision more highly placed, and their supervisors are less open and trusting. There are no differences between users and non-users in how exploitive they are of their workers.

B. The Decision Process

The decision to use permanent part time employment is a two-stage process. First, the consideration of part time employment as a staffing possibility is prompted almost exclusively by a scheduling problem--by a cyclical demand for the output of the work unit, by extended hours of operation, or by a non-standard size of work load. In all of these cases, part time employment permits managers to better fit the labor input to the size of the work load.

Second, an adductive decision process comes into play--a problem-centered scan for factors which might block their use of part time employment or make its implementation easier. The factors for which they scan are work technology, labor market conditions, trade union influence, and some aspects of organizational climate. A constraint in any of these areas reduces the chances of adopting part time employment, although incentives in other areas might offset the constraint, or the scheduling problem may be serious enough to overcome the constraint (see Chart 10).

The economic benefits and costs of part time employment are usually not central to this decision process, although they are of course likely to be favorable when there is a scheduling problem and there are few or no constraints against the implementation of part time employment.

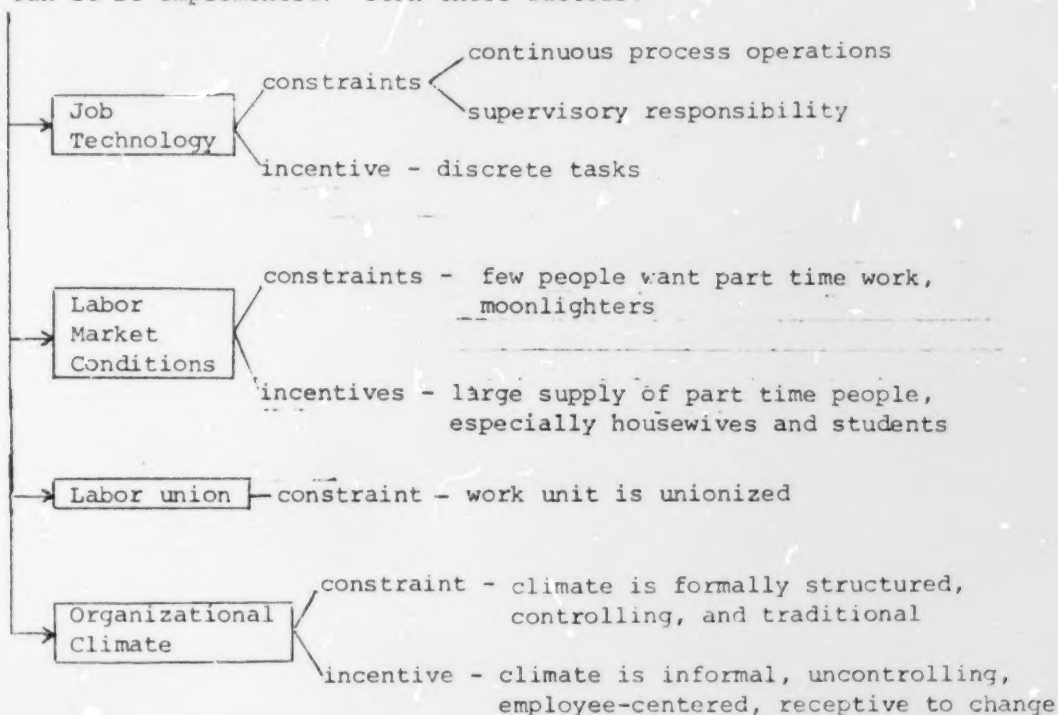
The quantitative evidence that part time employment is an adductive, problem-solving response to a scheduling difficulty is strong. Among the users of permanent part time employment in this study, 95 percent had a scheduling problem. In contrast only 35 percent of the non-users had such a problem. Thus the

IS THERE A SCHEDULING PROBLEM? e.g.,

- cyclical demand
- extended hours of operation
- non-standard size of work load

NO → Part time employment is usually not considered and not used

YES → Permanent part time employment is a probable solution;
Can it be implemented? Scan these factors:



- If there are no constraints, part time employment is likely to be used, and economic experiences will be favorable on balance
- If there are constraints, especially a unionized work unit and/or negative job technologies, part time employment may not be used. But in the absence of a unionized work unit, constraining job technologies can be overcome by offsetting favorable job technologies and/or favorable labor market conditions, leading to mixed economic outcomes.

Chart 10. The Decision Process to Use or Not to Use Permanent Part Time Employment

decision to use part-time employment is very closely related to scheduling problems, and users and non-users of part time workers are distinguished on that account.

Given that a scheduling problem is the trigger for the part time employment decision, what is the role of the other determinants of usage in the adductive decision-making model? For example, why do a few employers who do have a scheduling problem fail to use part time employment? One explanation, since permanent part time employment is not in the mainstream of staffing options, is that it may simply be overlooked as a possible solution to the firm's problem. Not all managers will think of all options. But there is evidence that the use of part time employment is blocked in the manager's mind by other influential factors; by a unionized work unit; or by several ill-suited work technologies and unfavorable labor market conditions. Three-quarters of the cases in which there is no use of part time employment despite a scheduling problem can be explained in this way.

Conversely, those work units which use part-time workers--almost all of whom have a scheduling problem--usually have few other constraints against that use. None in this study had a unionized work unit, and 40 percent of the users had no unfavorable work technologies. If there is an unfavorable work technology, there is also a favorable work technology or a good labor supply for part time people in two-thirds of the cases.

Thus it seems that some constraints against the use of permanent part time workers can be overcome. Sometimes they are overcome because the adverse effects of those constraints pale against the near-necessity to use part time employment to solve a scheduling problem. Sometimes a balancing of constraints with incentives tips the scales, e.g., an abundant supply of good part time workers can ease the implementation of part time employment despite jobs that require supervisory responsibility. In these cases, there will be some bad experiences with part time workers--some economic costs as well as some economic benefits. And in fact it is just this picture of mixed economic outcomes that is usually observed.

This decision process also explains why permanent part time employment is not generally seen as an alternative to or substitute for full time employment, and it explains why it is not institutionalized as a regular employment policy option. Part time employment is seen as a special purpose staffing method to solve particular kinds of scheduling problems.

Deficiencies in management systems also play a role in limiting the expansion of part time employment. There appear to be some appropriate usage situations which are not taken up because feedback mechanisms within the organization are imperfect. Measurement and reporting of economic outcomes for part time compared to full time workers is seldom done. Since work unit supervisors in companies which use part time employment are sometimes less positive about its economic outcomes than higher-level employment experts, there is no pressure from below which encourages part time employment. At the same time, employment experts in non-using companies do not share the same positive feelings about part time employment as their counterparts in user companies, so there is little initiative from the top to newly adopt it.

Perhaps most important, part time employment is stereotyped in certain narrow uses. Managers do not abstract from those uses the underlying factors

governing its use which could be applied to other uses bearing the same factors --they do not have a conceptual model of part time employment applications, and no complete analytical framework for making systematic part time employment decisions. The decision process is not always totally conscious or comprehensive.

C. Policy Recommendations

Given the large number of people who desire permanent part time employment and the potential social benefits to be gained from it, the central issue facing policy makers is whether there are any problems associated with increased usage of it from the employer's perspective. Would the increased use of permanent part time employment impose costs and burdens on employers? Would it be incompatible with existing production or administrative systems, either in general or in certain situations? Second, if policies to increase the use of permanent part time employment are desired, how should they be formulated? What kinds of policies are most likely to succeed in increasing the number of part time jobs and gain the support of the most people?

The answers to these questions are not clearcut. While based on empirical evidence from employers, they remain somewhat speculative. Because this study is only exploratory, and because many experiences of employers are situation-specific, generalizations are risky.

Nevertheless, the following recommendations are tentatively offered:

1. Almost any job can be successfully scheduled on a part time basis. There are no absolute technological barriers or major economic costs of part time employment, except those which may be caused by collective bargaining agreements. Difficulties and minor costs that are incurred are usually small and relatively easy to manage, or they are outweighed by concurrent economic advantages. Although there are some job technology reasons why few managers are employed part time, they can be overcome and there are numerous examples of this.
2. It is not likely that many additional permanent part time jobs will be made available without some outside incentive for employers. The major incentive to use part time employment currently is scheduling problems; these are not universal to all employers. There are few if any other strong incentives which can be documented. There may, however, be some stimulus to part time job offerings through increased awareness of the advantages of part time scheduling in such work settings. The question which remains is: How many work units are there with scheduling problems where part time employment is not currently used?
3. It is not likely that communicating the specific economic benefits to be gained by employers from using part time workers will act as much incentive for them to expand their part time job offerings. The economic benefits of part time employment are neither large nor persuasive in determining its use. For the most part, non-users are not ignorant of them. However, to the extent economic benefits of part time

employment are communicated, productivity and absenteeism will be the most successful in encouraging new adoptions. In these outcomes, non-users have apparently the mistaken perceptions that they are costs.

4. Policies for across-the-board provision of part time employment in all jobs at all levels are not likely to be successful. Some work settings are less suitable for part time employment than others. The implementation of part time employment is difficult and costly in certain job technologies, organizational structures, management styles, and value systems. The apparent added complexity of part time scheduling will not be easily accommodated in organizations which do not currently schedule workers at all (i.e., everyone works a straight 9 to 5 day).
5. Many permanent part time jobs could be made available by employers if there were new incentives for them to do so. If new government policies were among these incentives, there would not be strong resistance registered by employers as long as they retained considerable flexibility in implementing such policies. Employers who do not currently use part time employment usually have no strong prejudice against it. In many cases they do have information about it and do not suffer from misperceptions, and they do not foresee impossible cost barriers.
6. Management decision-making on permanent part time employment could be improved by providing an analytical framework--which sets of variables are relevant and how to analyze them. In particular, techniques for identifying work settings in which part time employment is advantageous could be developed. The relationships among work technology, labor market conditions, and organizational climate could be better analyzed.
7. More widespread use of permanent part time employment will require cooperative efforts between employers and labor unions. Labor unions are often a barrier to the use of part time employment currently. Obtaining union support for part time employment will require safeguards for the well-being of full time workers.

APPENDIX I

Facsimiles of Questionnaires¹

PERSONAL INTERVIEW
WORK UNIT SUPERVISOR²
USER³

1. What is your job title?
2. What is the name of the work unit your supervise?
3. What are the main products, service, or activities of this unit?
4. How many people are on the payroll of this unit?
_____ total _____ men _____ women
5. When you talk about part time employment, what are you referring to?
6. How many of the employees in this unit are part time?
7. In which jobs are part time workers used? How many are there in each job?
How many hours per week do they work?

<u>job</u>	<u>duties</u>	<u>number</u>	<u>hours</u>
------------	---------------	---------------	--------------

8. Why do you think your part time people work part time?
9. What is the other major role of your part time workers outside this job?
_____ housewife _____ handicapped _____ retired
_____ student _____ moonlighter _____ other
10. What are the major reasons you use part time employment?
11. Is there any job in this unit you would be particularly reluctant to offer on a part time basis?
_____ yes _____ no

If yes, which job?

12. Based on your experience with part time employees, please rate them as better equal, or worse (b,e,w) than full time workers in similar jobs on the following outcomes. Please explain why. If there is a difference in outcomes, is it important to your use of part time employment (yes or no)? Do you measure the outcome?

<u>Outcome</u>	<u>b,e, or w</u>	<u>Why?</u>	<u>Important?</u>	<u>Measures?</u>
Productivity				
Turnover				
Absenteeism				
Promotability				
Loyalty				
Relationships				
Availability				
Recruiting				
Training				
Record keeping				
Wage costs				
Fringe benefits				
Supervision				
Overtime				
Equipment				

13. Do any of the following technologies apply to your work unit (yes or no)? If so, are they important to your use of part time employment (yes or no)?

<u>Work Unit Technology</u>	<u>Applies?</u>	<u>Important?</u>
Complex scheduling		
Extended hours of operation		
Cyclical demand		
Non-standard size of work load		
Special projects		
High degree of change		

14. Do any of the following job task technologies describe the part time job which is _____ (select from question 7).

<u>Job Task Technology</u>	<u>Describe job?</u>
Image is important	
High level of stress	
High level of uncertainty	
Routine and repetitive	
Problem solving	
Supervisory responsibility	
Policy responsibility	
Continuous process operation	
Discrete tasks	
Extensive internal communication	
Extensive external communication	
Training required	
Supervisory support required	
Teamwork	

15. Are any of the following external forces or internal pressures heavily felt in this work unit (yes or no)?

External Force or Internal Pressure

Applies?

Important?

Labor union influence
Equal employment opportunity pressure
Community or customer pressures
Economic conditions, business cycles
Individual managers' attitude
Employees' attitudes about part time

16. What would you say is the managerial philosophy of this unit? (How is it different from that in the rest of the organization?) What are the central principles or beliefs that guide your own managerial decisions?
17. How would you say this unit sees itself as compared to others in this company (or in your industry)? What is its self-image?
18. If you look inside to your interval environment here, how would you describe the climate or atmosphere in this unit? (Attitudes, style, tone, feeling, etc.)
19. Interviewer observations:
- a) interviewee's sex male female
- b) interviewee's age 30 or less 30-50 over 50

¹The questions asked are those reproduced here. Explanatory material, definitions, and probes to assist the interviewer in the personal interview and to assist the interviewee in the mail questionnaire are deleted, extra space for recording answers and comments have been deleted, and provision for interviewee's code number, interviewee's name, and date have been deleted.

²The questionnaire for the personal interview for the employment expert is the same as that for the work unit supervisor, except job task technology questions are deleted.

³Questionnaires for non-users are the same as for users except that questions 5, 6, 7 and 9 are deleted, expectations are substituted for experiences in question 12, and questions 10 and 14 are appropriately modified.

MAIL QUESTIONNAIRE
WORK UNIT SUPERVISOR⁴
USER⁵

1. We would like to get some information about _____ (job title;
to be filled in by interviewer before leaving questionnaire).

2. How many employees are in this job category?
_____ total _____ men _____ women

3. The following are three statements describing various kinds of technologies.
Would you please indicate which one comes closest to describing this job?

_____ long linked. This is a typical mass production assembly type operation
where part A has to be finished before part B can begin and part B has
to be finished before part C can begin.

_____ mediating. This represents jobs which have as their primary functions,
the linking of clients, company members or customers who wish to be in-
terdependent such as the work of a telephone operator or an employment
agent. It also includes other jobs which require fairly standardized
operations with multiple client or customers distributed in time and
space such as the jobs of sales people or tellers in a bank.

_____ intensive. This sort of technology requires that a variety of techniques
be drawn on to achieve a change in some object; but the selection, com-
bination, and order of application is determined by feedback from the
object itself. It is a complex, problem-solving technology. The jobs
of most professionals, policy level managers, high technology sales
people and some kinds of construction workers demonstrate this kind of
technology.

4. Do supervisors need to be directly informed by or watch even the best employees
perform this job in order for the work to be carried out and run smoothly?
_____ yes _____ no

5. Could the best of employees in this job carry their tasks to successful
completion without guidance or direction from their immediate supervisor?
_____ impossible _____ improbable _____ possible _____ with ease

6. Could a capable worker in this job category complete his task successfully
without relying on a co-worker to help him in the actual task, supply him
with needed materials, remove completed work, etc.?
_____ impossible _____ improbable _____ possible _____ with ease

7. Once a given task is assigned to an individual worker in this job category,
is he the only one who works on that task from beginning to end?
_____ yes _____ no

8. Does the nature of the task itself require that employees in this job category
communicate with others in order to complete their assignment?
_____ almost never _____ infrequently _____ frequently _____ almost continually

9. Given the nature of most tasks being performed by workers in this category, can
they be broken down into clear procedural steps that become routine?
_____ with ease _____ somewhat easily _____ somewhat difficult _____ impossible

10. How often is the average person in this job category asked to solve problems which have a definite, clear-cut answer or at least clear methods of working out an answer?
 _____ almost continually _____ frequently _____ seldom _____ almost never
11. Does the work situation itself separate or isolate workers in this category geographically or in terms of space so that their communication or interaction is limited?
 _____ yes _____ no

The following questions are part of an instrument used to describe organizational climate. Please place a mark which best describes your work unit on each scale below.

Average Scores ⁶
User Non-User

1. The emotional relationship between supervisors and the employees they are in charge of.

Supervisors are polite to employees but never express their feelings.	Supervisors are polite and sometimes friendly, but do not usually express their feelings.	Supervisors are friendly with employees and usually express their feelings.	Supervisors are very friendly with employees and always express their feelings.	4.97	5.27
---	---	---	---	------	------

2. The degree to which supervisors allow their employees to influence the supervisors' decisions.

Supervisors almost always allow employees to join in and influence their decisions.	Supervisors frequently allow employees to join in and influence their decisions.	Supervisors sometimes allow employees to join in and influence their decisions.	Supervisors almost never allow their employees to join in and influence their decisions.	4.43	3.87
---	--	---	--	------	------

3. The amount of time that supervisors spend assigning work and making up schedules, setting up certain work goals, and watching the quantity and quality of employees' work.

Supervisors almost never do these things.	Supervisors sometimes do these things.	Supervisors frequently do these things.	Supervisors almost always do these things.	3.10	2.67
---	--	---	--	------	------

4. Why do employees work while on the job?

Mostly so they can get money and promotions, and not have to worry about losing their present jobs.	Mostly for money, promotions, and so they will not lose their jobs, but somewhat because they enjoy the people they work with and can express themselves.	Mostly because they enjoy the people they work with and express themselves at work, but somewhat for money, promotions, and so they won't lose their jobs.	Almost completely because they enjoy the people they work with and because they can express themselves at work.	3.63	4.07
---	---	--	---	------	------

5. The way in which rewards or penalties are given out to employees for their work.

Formal rules are used by all supervisors in rewarding and giving penalties to the employees.	Formal rules are used by all supervisors, but employees have a little control and few penalties are used.	Employees have a say in who gets rewards and there is almost no use of penalties.	Employees have as much or more say than supervisors in who gets rewarded and there is no use of penalties.	2.66	2.40
--	---	---	--	------	------

6. The amount of competition between employees, work groups, or departments in order to get more rewards or fewer penalties.

There is almost no competition.	There is some competition.	There is frequent competition.	Competition is almost always present.	6.03	5.20
---------------------------------	----------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------------------------	------	------

7. The amount of responsibility that different types of employees have for the success of your organization or place of work.

Top management has the responsibility.	Supervisors at all levels have the responsibility.	Some of the responsibility rests with lower level employees	Most of the responsibility rests with lower level employees.	3.93	3.80
--	--	---	--	------	------

8. The amount of times employees can talk or communicate about things other than the job they are doing.

					User	Non-User
Always	Often	Sometimes	Almost never		5.37	5.07

9. The use of formal channels of communication (for example, not going over the boss's head, speaking to the right people, following procedures, using memos).

					User	Non-User
Formal channels are very important	Formal channels are pretty important.	Formal channels are only somewhat important.	Formal channels are not important.		1.53	3.13

10. The amount of communication lower level employees give to their supervisors and top management (upward communication) vs. the amount of communication supervisors and top management give to the lower level employees (downward communication).

					User	Non-User
Formal communication is almost always from lower level employees to supervisors and top management. (upward)	Mostly upward.	Mostly downward.	Formal communication is almost always from supervisors and top management to lower level employees. (upward).		3.43	3.53

11. Top management and supervisors keep what they know to themselves vs. they share what they know with lower level employees.

					User	Non-User
Top management and supervisors are careful to keep what they know to themselves and tell employees just enough to let employees do their job.	They usually keep what they know to themselves, but will answer certain questions that are not directly about the job.	They usually tell employees what they know and will answer even questions not directly about the job.	Top management and supervisors tell the employees everything they know and answer any kind of question.		4.33	5.27*

12. Lower level employees keep what they know to themselves vs. lower level employees share what they know with supervisors and top management.

					User	Non-User
They are careful to keep what they know to themselves unless the rules require that they tell something to top management and their supervisors.	They usually keep what they know to themselves, but will answer some questions that they are not required to by the rules.	They usually tell top management and their supervisors what they know and will answer even questions not directly about the job.	Employees tell top management and their supervisors everything they know and answer any kind of question.		4.23	4.40

13. The use that supervisors and top management make of extra sources of information like T.V. monitors in the work setting, counters or other production measures, anonymous suggestion boxes, opinion surveys, etc. so that they can find out more.

					User	Non-User
Other sources of information are almost never used by supervisors and top management.	They are sometimes used.	They are frequently used.	These sources of information are almost always used by supervisors and top management.		5.47	5.07

14. The way in which employees with equal status or similar positions communicate with each other (for example, the way they talk or write to each other).

					User	Non-User
They are always very careful about what they say to each other and always use the proper channels.	They are often careful about what they say to each other and usually use the proper channel.	They are usually relaxed about what they say to each other and often do not use the formal channel.	They are always relaxed about what they say to each other and almost never use the formal channel.		5.67	5.93

15. The amount of influence that lower level employees have on their supervisors and top management (upward influence) vs. the amount of influence supervisors and top management have on the lower level employees (downward influence).

User Non-User

Almost all influence comes from lower level employees and is aimed at supervisors and top management (upward).	Mostly upward.	Mostly downward.	Almost all influence comes from supervisors and top management and is aimed at lower level employees (downward).	2.93	3.00
--	----------------	------------------	--	------	------

16. The use of formal channels of influence (for example, unions, meetings, votes, following procedures, not going over the boss's head).

Formal channels are very important.	Formal channels are pretty important.	Formal channels are only somewhat important.	Formal channels are not important.	3.87	3.53
-------------------------------------	---------------------------------------	--	------------------------------------	------	------

17. The number of times different employees try to influence the behavior and thinking of other employees.

People try to influence each other very often. This often happens between two people regardless of their job levels or positions at work.	People try to influence each other often, but one lower level employee usually would not try to influence a member of top management.	People sometimes try to influence each other, but it is clear that a lower level employee would not try to influence a member of top management.	People do not usually try to influence each other and one lower level employee would never try to influence a member of top management.	5.17	5.60
---	---	--	---	------	------

18. The amount of control that supervisors and top management have over the work methods, behavior, and goals of their employees.

Top management and supervisors have a great deal of control in certain situations, especially when they give out large rewards or penalties.	They have control in certain situations when they give out large rewards.	They have some control in many situations, but this control is little when employees do not want to be controlled.	Top management and supervisors have some control in most situations, but this control is very small when employees do not want to be controlled.	3.60	2.93
--	---	--	--	------	------

19. The amount of control that lower level employees have over the work methods, behavior and goals of their supervisors and top management.

Lower level employees have almost no control.	Lower level employees have some control, but mostly through unions and the proper channels.	Lower level employees have a lot of control.	Lower level employees have almost total control.	2.93	3.80*
---	---	--	--	------	-------

20. The level at which decisions are made which everyone is supposed to follow (for example, are these decisions made by top management, middle level supervisors, or lower level employees)?

Decisions about almost everything, including many policies, are made by lower level employment.	A few decisions are made by top management and middle level supervisors, but many decisions are made by lower level employees.	Most decisions are made by top management, but some decisions are made by middle level supervisors who then check back with top management.	Almost all decisions are made by top management.	3.53	3.73
---	--	---	--	------	------

21. How is the power to make decisions given out to the different employees? Is this power to make decisions given out on the basis of professional or technical training and education?

User Non-user

Everyone, regardless of training and education is given power to make decisions.	Most of the time power to make decisions is given to everyone, but sometimes it is given out on the basis of training and education.	Most of the time power to make decisions is given to those who have training and education, thus leaving out most of the lower level employees.	Power to make decisions is given to those who have training and education almost always leaving out lower level employees.
--	--	---	--

3.43 3.80

22. The control of power that lower level employees have over decisions about their work (for example, who should do what work, how the work is to be done).

Lower level employees have little control over the decisions being made and oftentimes are not asked what they think.	They have some control over the decisions being made and are sometimes asked what they think.	They have a lot of control over the decisions being made and are often asked what they think.	Lower level employees have almost total control over the decisions being made and are always asked what they think.
---	---	---	---

3.03 3.60*

23. Decisions are made in groups (in employee meetings, by vote, etc.) vs. decisions are made in private on a person-to-person basis.

Decisions are made almost always in private and on a person-to-person basis.	Decisions are usually made in private and on a person-to-person basis.	Most decisions are made by groups of employees.	Decisions are almost always made by a group of employees.
--	--	---	---

3.67 3.87

24. Who chooses the work goals, production targets or objectives that everybody is supposed to try to reach? Do members of top management or middle level supervisors or lower level employees set these goals?

Most of the time lower level employees choose most of the goals.	Some goals are chosen by top management and middle supervisors, but many goals are chosen by lower level employees.	Most goals are chosen by top management, but some goals are chosen by middle level supervisors who then check back with top management.	Almost all goals are chosen by top management.
--	---	---	--

3.57 3.87

25. How often are the lower level employees given instructions or orders about what kinds of work goals or targets they should be trying to reach (in manuals, speeches, written directives, memos, etc.)?

Always	Often	Sometimes	Almost never
--------	-------	-----------	--------------

4.03 4.20

26. Who watches out for the quality and quantity of employees' work? Is it mostly members of top management or middle level supervisors or lower level employees?

Top management almost totally.	Sometimes top management, sometimes middle level supervisors.	Sometimes middle level supervisors, sometimes lower level employees.	Lower level employees almost totally.
--------------------------------	---	--	---------------------------------------

4.28 4.73*

27. All places of work have some way of checking up on their output, performance, or work. Who does most of this checking up--top management, middle level supervisors, or lower level employees?

Lower level employees are often the only ones that check on the work.	Middle level supervisors do some checking up, but sometimes lower level employees also do.	Middle level supervisors almost always do the checking up, but sometimes top management also does.	Top management does almost all the checking up on work.
---	--	--	---

4.07 3.93

28. After the output, performance, or employees' work has been checked up on, who uses this information and why?

User Non-User

It is used almost only by top management to keep an eye on employees so that they can pass out rewards and punishments.	It is used mostly by middle level supervisors to keep an eye on lower level employees, but sometimes top management also uses it.	It is used mostly by lower level employees and middle level supervisors to get information about their performance.	It is used almost only by lower level employees to get information about their own performance.	3.40	3.87
---	---	---	---	------	------

29. Span of Control: How many employees does the average supervisor have directly under him, approximately?

Very many (30 or more)	Many (11 to 30)	A few (5 to 10)	Only a very few (1 to 4)	5.13	5.60
------------------------	-----------------	-----------------	--------------------------	------	------

30. Is there a big difference between the amount of money that the average lower level employee gets and the average supervisor gets (in salary, expense accounts, charge accounts, profit sharing, shares of the company's stocks, etc.)?

A very large difference.	A large difference.	Some difference.	A small difference.	4.43	4.67
--------------------------	---------------------	------------------	---------------------	------	------

31. Is there a big difference between the amount of education, training, and/or experience the average lower level employee has and the average supervisor has?

A very large difference.	A large difference	Some difference	A small difference	4.50	4.20
--------------------------	--------------------	-----------------	--------------------	------	------

32. How much are the jobs at your place of work specialized? For example, does the average employee have only a limited number of things to do out of all the things that are done in your work setting?

A great amount of specialization.	A large amount of specialization	Some specialization	Very little specialization	4.90	5.80*
-----------------------------------	----------------------------------	---------------------	----------------------------	------	-------

The following questions try to get a feel for your attitudes or beliefs. Please place a mark which best describes them on each scale below.

33. I believe that everyone should submit to proper authority, put their faith in strong leadership, and be willing to make sacrifices for the good of their place of work, community, or country.

User Non-User

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly	2.93	2.73
----------------	-------	----------------	---------	-------------------	----------	-------------------	------	------

34. I believe in and uphold traditional values (support the law, democracy, our government, the family structure, etc.) and I am against radicals and communism.

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly	2.43	1.93
----------------	-------	----------------	---------	-------------------	----------	-------------------	------	------

35. I believe that those who break the law and go against traditional values should be harshly punished.

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly	3.30	2.47*
----------------	-------	----------------	---------	-------------------	----------	-------------------	------	-------

36. I believe there are too many people wasting time with sentimentality and idle thinking and not enough people dealing with their problems directly and getting down to work.

User Non-User

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
-------------------	-------	-------------------	---------	----------------------	----------	----------------------

3.40 2.60*

37. I believe in at least some stereotypes and superstitions whether or not some intellectuals attack them.

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
-------------------	-------	-------------------	---------	----------------------	----------	----------------------

4.03 4.13

38. I respect the physical strength and active, red-blooded way of life that Americans used to have.

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
-------------------	-------	-------------------	---------	----------------------	----------	----------------------

3.57 3.13

39. I believe that human nature is directed by self-interest rather than love of fellow men since most people are fighting to survive in a hostile world.

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
-------------------	-------	-------------------	---------	----------------------	----------	----------------------

3.67 4.27*

40. Most people in this unit are basically conservative. They believe strongly in tradition and are generally reluctant to change unless they have very strong reasons to do so.

Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Neutral	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
-------------------	-------	-------------------	---------	----------------------	----------	----------------------

3.70 3.40

41. External stress conditions: Certain places of work are under more pressure or stress from outside than are other places. Here are some examples of external stress: poor business or economic conditions, outside union pressure or strikes, few good outside people applying for jobs, other companies trying to hurt business, shortage of necessary materials, pressure or threats from clients. How much is your place of work under pressures like these.

Under extreme stress	Under much stress	Under some stress	Under average stress	Under little stress	Under very little stress	Under no stress
----------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------	----------------------------	---------------------------	-----------------------------	--------------------

3.80 4.27

42. Internal stress conditions: Certain places of work are under more pressure or stress from inside than are other places. Here are some examples of internal stress: internal conflict or friction among employees, lack of trust among employees, supervisors pushing employees to work too hard, hostility toward top management, employees destroying company property, uncomfortable or dangerous working conditions, accidents, many employees leaving their jobs to work somewhere else, employees not being satisfied with their jobs. How much is your place of work under pressures like these?

Under extreme stress	Under much stress	Under some stress	Under average stress	Under little stress	Under very little stress	Under no stress
----------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------	----------------------------	---------------------------	-----------------------------	--------------------

4.13 4.07

- 4 The mail questionnaire for the employment expert is the same as that for the work unit supervisor except that questions 3 through 11 are deleted and question 1 is modified to refer to the entire enterprise.

- 5 Questionnaires for non-users are the same as those for users

- 6 Empirical results obtained from the mail questionnaire for work unit supervisors in 30 user and 15 non-user companies. High scores indicate a human relations climate and low scores indicate a classical management climate. Questions 2, 3, 6, 8, 10, 13, 15, 17, 20, 21, 24, 27, and 29 are reversed in direction in the questionnaire to avoid response set, but are recorded so that the interpretation of results in the column below is the same as the other questions.

43. Below there is a list of various kinds of documents or forms that can circulate in an organization. Please indicate these forms that are present in the unit that you are describing by placing a check next to them.

User	Non-User
14.57	18.07*

- a. ☐ Written contracts of employment (legal contract, letter of appointment)
- b. ☐ Handbooks
- c. ☐ Organizational chart
- d. ☐ Written operation instructions for workers
- e. ☐ Written job descriptions
- f. ☐ Manual of procedures
- g. ☐ Written policies
- h. ☐ Workflow or production schedules
- i. ☐ Research reports
- j. ☐ Management approval in writing required for certain decisions
- k. ☐ Notification of appointment of new employees
- l. ☐ Suggestion boxes, forms, or other written schemes
- m. ☐ Conference reports
- n. ☐ Minutes for senior executive meetings
- o. ☐ Agendas for senior executive meetings
- p. ☐ Minutes for production meetings
- q. ☐ Agendas for production meetings
- r. ☐ Written reports submitted in production meetings
- s. ☐ Dismissal form or report recording the dismissal
- t. ☐ House journal
- u. ☐ Record of inspections performed
- v. ☐ Work study records
- w. ☐ Records of workers' work output
- x. ☐ Records of workers' hours
- y. ☐ Petty cash vouchers, authorizing/or recording petty expenditures
- z. ☐ Documents stating the work done or to be done for a given task
- aa. ☐ Appeal forms against dismissal
- bb. ☐ Written union procedures for negotiation
- cc. ☐ Written history of the organization

BLANK

(Last pg. of Appendix I)

104

Appendix II. Part Time Employment Legislation: Current Status

All of the part time employment legislation introduced in the 94th Congress (1974-1976) is scheduled for reintroduction early in the 95th Congress session. Representative Yvonne Burke's "Part-Time Career Opportunity Act" (H.R. 1627) was introduced with two changes, both of which are more advantageous to part time workers: 1) part time workers may compete with full time workers for promotion; and 2) retirement benefit credit will be accrued on a calendar basis rather than hours of work performed basis.

The same bill was introduced in the Senate (S. 1738) by Gaylord Nelson and co-sponsored by Senator Birch Bayh. Representative Barber Conable plans to reintroduce his "Private Sector Part Time Employment Act" (H.R. 12414 in the 94th Congress) in the first session of the new Congress as a remedy for structural unemployment. The bill is presently under study by the Congressional Budget Office as a fresh approach to job legislation.

A bill to provide part time employment opportunities for older workers under a full employment and balanced growth policy has been introduced as H.R. 3072 by Rep. Henry Waxman of California.

One new bill will focus indirectly on part time employment. Senators Humphrey and Javits plan to introduce the "Comprehensive Youth and Employment Act of 1977" on January 11, 1977. One of four parts funds a Work Experience for In-School Youth Program designed to promote cooperation between private industry and local school systems in developing paid part time jobs for full time students which are related to their courses of study. The school's counseling and placement expenses would be reimbursed under the terms of the bill.

On the state level legislation patterned on the proposed federal Part-Time Career Opportunity Act has been enacted in several states including Maryland and Massachusetts.

In Massachusetts, Chapter 500 of the Acts of 1974, which was authored by Representative Lois Pines, requires that 10 percent of covered state positions be filled by part time workers. Noting the short life of even highly successful earlier projects such as the Boston part-time social workers, Massachusetts has engaged a management consulting firm to develop an implementation program which stresses the management benefits of part time employment, for example, the opportunity to obtain the services of highly trained professionals such as lawyers or psychologists who would not otherwise accept low paid state jobs. A U.S. Department of Labor grant is currently being sought to continue these efforts as a demonstration project which could be replicated in other states. Actual implementation has been hampered by involvement of the issue in collective bargaining negotiations and conflict between the new law and existing laws and regulations. A proposed new set of regulations has been drafted. Implementation of a voluntary flexible working hours program has been given priority because of its greater acceptability and ease in adoption. It is hoped that the several units which have converted to flexitime will become supportive of part time employment.

Maryland was the first state to enact a part time employment act. Titled the Flexible Hours Act, it differs from the proposed Federal legislation in that it mandates that only 5 percent of covered state positions be offered on a part time basis. Though there has been close cooperation between the bill's author, Representative Marilyn Goldwater, and the state's personnel department in implementation efforts, a six-month study found that many managers and supervisors were unaware of the new law's requirements. The six-month study also found, however, that some full time employees who preferred part time employment for health or other personal reasons had used the new law to reduce their hours.

In Illinois a bill making 10 percent of all state positions available on other than a normal schedule was signed into law in October, 1975. According to a survey presently underway by Maureen McCarthy for the Committee for Alternative Work Patterns¹ the bill has been interpreted as a flexible hours plan with core hours and an extended bandwidth during which work may be performed.

The McCarthy survey also reports that proposed part time legislation failed in Iowa and New Jersey. Job sharing legislation, however, is scheduled for introduction in Hawaii during the next session.

In Wisconsin, where a Department of Labor funded part time employment and job sharing demonstration project for professional and para-professional workers is being conducted within the state's Department of Administration, a Special Committee On Part-Time Employment was established within the state legislature on June 15, 1976. Chaired by Representative Midge Miller, the committee was directed to conduct a study of the potential expansion of part time employment opportunities and programs by the State of Wisconsin.

In practice, personnel policies set by the Office of Management and Budget have the effect of discouraging part time employment in the federal government even though Civil Service Commission regulations specifically allow for the use of part time workers and provide the methods to be used to employ them. Under present regulations, a federal employer is required to count a part time worker as one entire position, and cannot pro-rate positions on the basis of actual hours worked. Part time workers can be placed in an "other" or "derived" category where they do not count against the personnel ceiling for full time workers. But often employers either misinterpret the rule, believing they have to count part time people against full time ceilings, or else they are hesitant to classify a job in the "other" category for fear that it cannot be reclaimed as a full time position in the future. The result is that federal managers are deterred from hiring part time workers, and continue to employ full time workers whether the job actually requires it or not (Prywes 1974, HEW 1973, Cashdan 1971, U.S. Comptroller General 1976).

The Civil Service Commission is on record as favoring a change in this regulation so that all workers' hours would count against an agency's ceiling

Maureen McCarthy. "The Extent of Alternative Work Schedules in State Government." Committee for Alternative Work Patterns, to be available in March, 1977.

on a pro-rated basis. Moreover, legislation pending in the U.S. Congress which would require a minimum percentage of all federal jobs to be made available to part time workers (S. 792 by Mr. Tunney, passed with amendments by the Senate, and U.R. 3925, by Mrs. Burke) calls for this change. But to date, the rule remains unaltered since the Office of Management and Budget has rejected the change.

BLANK

(Last pg. of Appendix II)

108

116

Bibliography

- Bednarzik, Robert W. Part-Time Work and Public Policy. Dissertation. University of Missouri, Department of Economics - Human Resources Program, in process.
- Bennet, B.A. "Part Time Nursing Employment in Great Britain." International Labor Review, April 1962.
- Best, Ethel L. A Study of Change From Eight to Six Hours of Work. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1933.
- Bruntz, T. "Part Time Employment of Women in Industrial Countries." International Labor Review, November 1962.
- Bureau of National Affairs. Bulletin to Management: ASPA-BNA Survey No. 25 - Part-Time and Temporary Employees, December 5, 1974.
- Catalyst, Inc. Catalyst in Education. Part Time Teachers and How They Work: A Study of Five School Systems. New York: Catalyst, 1968.
- Catalyst, Inc. Part Time Social Workers in Public Welfare. New York: Catalyst, 1971.
- College and University Personnel Association Journal, Summer 1977 (entire issue derived from the National Conference on Alternative Work Patterns, Chicago, March 20-22, 1977).
- Control Data Corporation, "Part Time Employment in Bindery Operations." St. Paul, Minnesota, 1973.
- Darrow, Susan T. and Stokes, Sybil L. "Part Time Professional and Administrative Employment at the University of Michigan," Part I. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Center for Continuing Education of Women, January 1973.
- Darrow, Susan T. and Stokes, Sybil L. "Part Time Professional Employment in Three Settings at the University of Michigan," Part II of Study of Part Time Professional and Administrative Employment at the University of Michigan. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Center for Continuing Education of Women, August 1973.
- Daski, Robert S. "Area Wage Survey Test Focuses on Part Timers." Monthly Labor Review, April 1974.
- "A Demonstration Project to Develop and Test a Job Sharing and Flexible Time Arrangement in Wisconsin Civil Service." U.S. Department of Labor Grant No. 21-55-76-11 to State of Wisconsin, Department of Administration, Bureau of Human Resource Services Federal Manpower Programs. To be available after May 31, 1978 from National Technical Information Services, Springfield, Va.

- Doerginger, Peter and Piore, Michael. Internal Labor Markets and Manpower Analysis. Lexington, Mass.: Heath-Lexington Books, 1971.
- Franklin, David S. "Intermittent and Flexible Work Schedules and Welfare Mothers Employment." Los Angeles: University of Southern California Regional Research Institute in Social Welfare, unpublished.
- Goldring, Patrick. Multipurpose Man. New York: Taplinger Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.
- Greenwald, C.S. and Liss, J. "Part Time Workers Can Bring Higher Productivity." Harvard Business Review, September 1973.
- Gruber, Alan Robert. "A Comparative Study of the Utilization of Mature College Graduated Women Employed Half Time as Caseworkers in an Urban Public Welfare Department." Dissertation, Columbia University, 1971.
- Hallaire, Jean. Part Time Employment: Its Extent and Its Problems. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1968.
- Hallaire, Jean. "Working Hours Per Week and Day," New Patterns for Working Time, International Conference, Paris, September 1972. Supplement to Final Report. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1973.
- Hewes, Amy. "Women Part Time Workers in the United States." International Labor Review, November 1962.
- Homans, George. The Human Group. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1950.
- Howell, Margaret A. and Ginsburg, Marjorie G. "Evaluation of the Professional and Executive Corps of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare." Public Personnel Management, January 1973.
- International Labor Office. Part Time Employment: An International Survey. W. 4. Geneva: International Labor Office, December 1973.
- "An International Survey of Part Time Employment." Part I and Part II. International Labor Review, October and November 1963.
- Janjic, Marion. "Part Time Work in Public Service." International Labor Review, April 1972.
- Jones, Ethel B. "Women and Part-week Work." U.S. Department of Labor Grant 76-213 to Auburn University School of Business Administration. To be available from National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Virginia after September 1977.
- Klein, Viola. Women Workers: Working Hours and Services: A Survey in Twenty-one Countries. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1965.

- Langdale, John A., "Assessment of Work Climates: The Appropriateness of Classical Management Theory and Human Relations Theory Under Various Contingencies." Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1974. Available from National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Virginia (number PB236218).
- Langdale, John A. "Towards a Contingency Theory for Designing Work Organizations." Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Vol. 12, no. 2, April, May, June, 1976.
- Lawrence, Paul R. and Seiler, John A. Organizational Behavior and Administration. Homewood, Ill.: R. D. Irwin, 1965.
- Lazer, Robert I. "Job Sharing as a Pattern for Permanent Part-Time Work," The Conference Board Record, October 1975, pp. 57-61.
- Levitan, Sar. Reducing Worktime as a Means to Combat Unemployment. Kalamazoo, Michigan: Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, September 1965.
- Levitan, Sar A. and Belous, Richard S. Is There a Future in Shorter Hours? Washington, D.C.: Center for Social Policy Studies, November 1976.
- Martin, Virginia H. Hours of Work When Workers Can Choose: The Experience of 59 Organizations with Employee Chosen Staggered Hours and Flexitime. Washington, D.C.: Business and Professional Womens Foundation, 1975.
- Martin, Virginia H. "Recruiting Woman Managers Through Flexible Hours." Advanced Management Journal, July 1974.
- McCarthy, Maureen E. The Extent of Alternative Work Schedules in State Government. Washington, D.C.: Committee for Alternative Work Patterns, March 1977.
- Meredith, Jane (Lofton). Part Time Employment for Women. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1960.
- Morse, Dean. The Peripheral Worker. New York: Columbia University Press, 1969.
- Nollen, Stanley D., Eddy, Brenda B., Martin, Virginia H., and Monroe, Douglas. "Permanent Part Time Employment: An Interpretive Review," unpublished paper, February 1976.
- Novitski, A. and Babkina, M. "Part Time Work and Employment." Problems of Economics, January 1974.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. "Part Time Employment." OECD Observer, June 1968.

- Owen, John D. "An Econometric Analysis of the Part-Time Labor Market in the United States." U.S. Department of Labor Grant No. 21-26 76-13 to Wayne State University, Department of Economics. To be available after April 30, 1977 from National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Va.
- Owen, John D. "A Study of the Effects of Alternative Work Schedules." National Science Foundation Grant to Haldi Associates, New York, N.Y., under review.
- Part Time Faculty Employment. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges, Project on the Status and Education of Women, April 1976.
- Part-Time and Flexible Time Employment. Staff Brief 76-7. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Legislature, Legislative Council, July 16, 1976.
- Poor, Riva, ed. 4 Days, 40 Hours and Other Forms of the Rearranged Workweek. New York: New American Library, 1973.
- Price, Charlton. Alternatives in the World of Work. Report on a conference, April 8, 1976. U.S. Senate Office Building, Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Productivity and Quality of Working Life, in press.
- Prywes, Ruth W. Study on the Development of a Non-Standard Work Day or Work Week for Women. Springfield, Virginia: National Technical Information Service, February 26, 1974.
- "Resource Packet." Washington, D.C.: National Council on Alternative Work Patterns, 1977.
- Robison, David, ed. Alternative Work Patterns: Changing Approaches to Work Scheduling. Report of a conference, June 2, 1976, New York City. Scarsdale, N.Y.: Work in American Institute, Inc., 1976.
- Sampson, Jean; Bagley, Lawrence P. and Anderson, L.V. The Part Time Assignment of Women in Teaching. Cooperative Project No. 2024. Augusta, Maine: Maine State Department of Education, 1965.
- Sandberg, Mark E. "A Study of Attitudes, Values and Expressed Satisfaction of Part Time Employers in Hospitals." Dissertation, Cornell, 1971. Xerox University microfilm order no. 72-9931.
- Sandler, Rhoda and Platt, Judith. "Job Sharing at Montgomery County." Library Journal 98, November 1973.
- Schonberger, Richard J. "Ten Million U.S. Housewives Want to Work." Labor Law Journal, June 21, 1970.
- Schwartz, Jane. Part Time Employment: Employer Attitudes for the College Trained Woman. New York: Alumnae Advisory Center, Inc., 1964.
- Seear, B. Reentry of Women to the Labor Market After an Interruption in Employment. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1971.

Silverberg, Marjorie M. and Eyde, Lorraine D. "Career Part Time Employment: Personnel Implications for the HEW Professional and Executive Corps." National Civil Service League, Good Government, Fall 1971.

Stewart, C.A. et al. Job Sharing in Municipal Government: A Case Study in the City of Palo Alto. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Action Research Liaison Office, June 1975.

Tagiuri, Renato and Litwin, George H. Organizational Climate: Exploration of a Concept. Boston: Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration, 1968.

Thompson, James D. Organization--Action. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

United Nations. Secretary-General. Part-Time Work for Women; Report. New York: United Nations Economic and Social Council, 1974.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Reports. No. "Work Experience of the Population in 1975." Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Handbook of Labor Statistics 1975. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

U.S. Comptroller General. Report to the Congress. Part-Time Employment in Federal Agencies. FPCD-75-156. Washington, D.C.: U.S. General Accounting Office, January 2, 1976.

U.S. Congress, House of Representatives, Subcommittee on Manpower and Civil Service of the Committee on Post Office and Civil Service. Alternate Work Schedules and Part-Time Career Opportunities in Federal Government. Hearings on H.R. 6350, H.R. 3925, and S. 792, 94th Congress, 1st session, September 29, 30, October 7, 1975.

U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service. Flexible Hours Employment. Hearings on S. 2022, 93rd Congress, 1st session, September 26, 1973.

U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service. Flexible Hours in the Federal Service. Report No. 93-1143, 93rd Congress, 2nd session, September 11, 1974.

U.S. Congress, Senate Subcommittee on Employment, Poverty and Migratory Labor of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. Changing Patterns of Work in America, 1976. Hearings. 94th Congress, 2nd session, April 7 and 8, 1976.

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. A Guide Through Employment, Positions and Ceilings in the Federal Government With an Argument on Behalf of Part Time Employment. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, November 1973.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. Part Time Jobs for Women: A Study in Ten Cities. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 238. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1951.

Van der Does de Willebois, J.L.J.M. "A Workshop for Married Women in Part Time Employment: Implications of an Experiment in the Netherlands." International Labor Review, December 1967.

Werther, William B. Jr. "Part Timers: Overlooked and Undervalued." Business Horizons, February 1975.

Wilberson, Margaret B. Part-Time Work/Flexible Scheduling. Berkeley, Cal.: University of California, Center for Continuing Education of Women, 1975.

Worthy, N. Beatrice. "Part Time Working Mothers: A Case Study." Management Record, September 1960.